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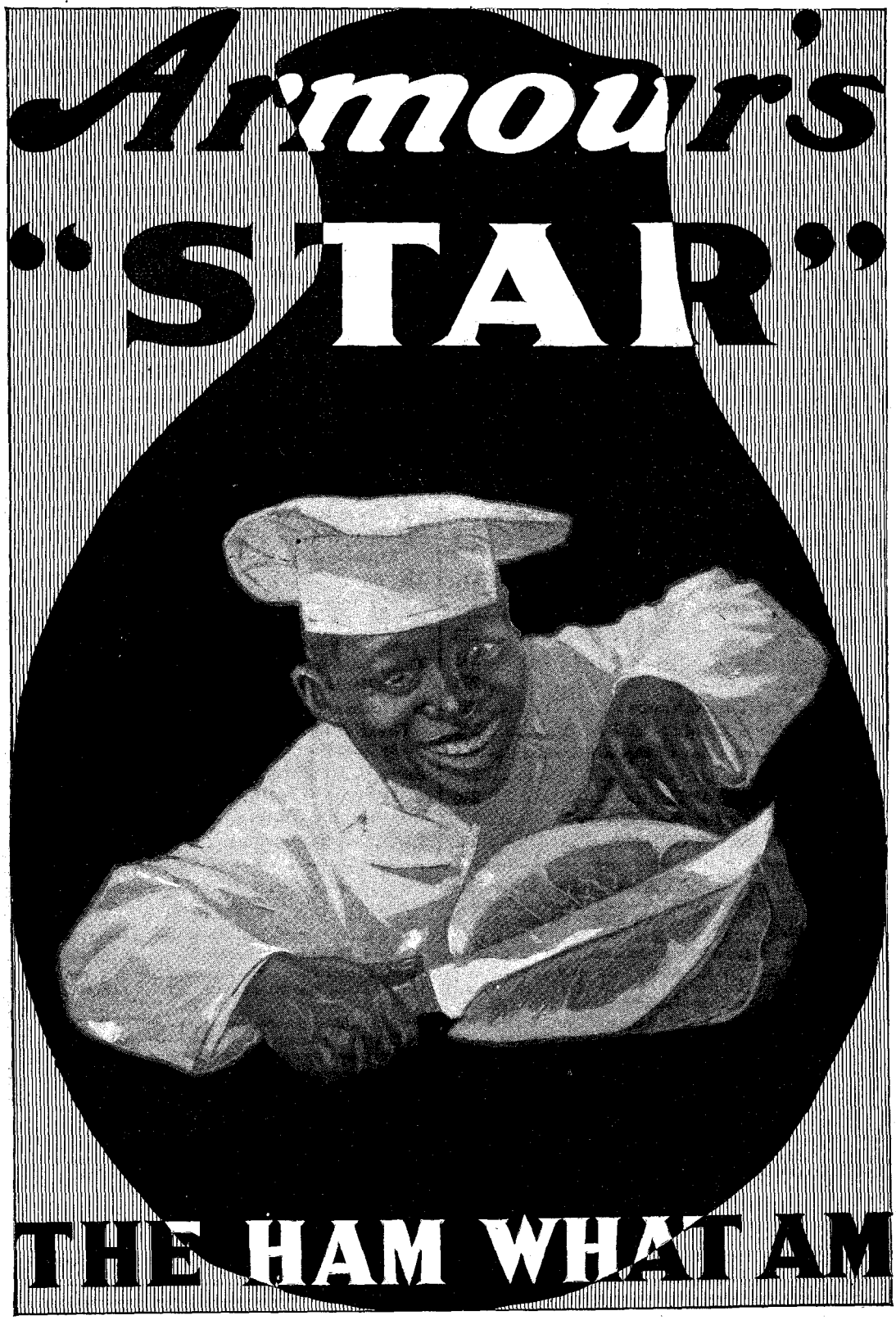

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The Outlook

JUNE 3, 1911

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THE FALL OF DIAZ

Not without personal dignity, and certainly not without a touch of pathos, is the document by which President Diaz, as his final official act, lays down the power which he has held for thirty-five years. The man of eighty-one, broken in health, deserted by political friends of many years' standing, and assailed as the cause of dissension and revolution, bows to the will of his countrymen, who, he says, "covered me with honors, who proclaimed me as their leader during the international war, who patriotically assisted me in all works undertaken to develop industry and the commerce of the republic, establish its credit, gain for it the respect of the world, and obtain for it an honorable position in the concert of nations; that same people has revolted in armed military bands, stating that my presence in the exercise of the supreme executive power was the cause of this insurrection." He recognizes the fact that further resistance would cause bloodshed, endanger the nation's credit, exhaust its resources, and expose it to international complications. Finally, he expresses the hope that, "when the passions which are inherent to all revolutions have been calmed, a more conscientious and justified study will bring out in the national mind a correct acknowledgment, which will allow me to die carrying engraved in my soul a just impression of the estimation of my life, which throughout I have devoted and will devote to my countrymen." Thus, on Thursday, May 25, ended an extraordinary political career, and began a new era in the history of Mexico. Vice-President Corral's resignation had already been tendered, and the Mexican Congress accepted both resignations, listening with respect and even emotion to a eulogy of Diaz which closed with the words, "President Diaz is dead; long live Citizen Diaz." The formal choice of Francisco Leon de la Barra as Provisional President followed. The capital city welcomed the change with demonstrations of enthusiasm, and a representative of Madero, Señor Dominguez, was allowed to assume control of the Government troops. It was clearly time that final action should be taken, for the large disaffected element in Mexico City had become incensed by the delay, and rioting, breaking of windows, and increasingly threatening demonstrations occurred in the early part of the week. The insurgent leaders not immediately under Madero's control have shown restiveness, and assaults in Chihuahua and other places have been averted with difficulty. General Figueroa, in command of a formidable insurgent force, was within striking distance of the capital, and even after the abdication it seemed not improbable that he would insist on entering Mexico City before the arrival there of Madero. In every way it has become more and more evident since the fall of Juarez that the country at large had become determined that Diaz should go.

THE FUTURE OF MEXICO

What will be the outcome of this overthrow of the Government it is impossible to predict. Madero and his followers have splendid opportunities. The revolution they have carried to success undoubtedly represents more than a clash of personal ambitions. While Diaz has had wonderful success in keeping peace with the world at large, in maintaining financial credit, and in developing the country's material resources, chiefly through concessions to foreigners, he has

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not done much to improve the conditions of the lower and middle classes, either as regards education or possibilities of prosperity. Three-fourths of the people are of Indian extraction, but between these peons and the few great landowners and rich "concessionaires" has grown up a middle class which urgently demands reforms in the land laws, the abolition of arbitrary rule, the reform of despotism (Diazpotism, some one has called it), the restoration of constitutional rights which have been ignored, the principle of a single Presidential term, and at least a fair attempt at self-government. Madero is an educated and wealthy man, is in some respects a political idealist, and means, it is believed, to inaugurate radical reforms. What he can actually effect under the conditions confronting him remains to be seen. To arrange for a national election the result of which will truly represent the will of the people is in itself a task puzzling and difficult. That accomplished, there remains the complicated duty of establishing a sound government out of most conflicting elements, and of bringing about legislation of a practical sort which will meet the urgent demands for reform without being purely theoretical or impractical. Meanwhile the duty of the United States and of other countries is to deal moderately and patiently, though firmly, with the situation, to recognize the terrible strain which this crisis must put upon ordinary relations, and to make all efforts to avoid international complications of a disagreeable sort whenever such avoidance is possible consistently with honor and safety.

AN AVIATION TRAGEDY

France has been for centuries an experiment station on the line of advancing civilization; and the French mind has never hesitated to test theories by practice and to go to the logical end of its convictions. The French have probably paid a greater price in blood in all forms of experimentation than any other people; and in no other country has the path of progress been hewn out with greater suffering and sacrifice. Another tragedy was added to the long list last week when, at the start of an aviation race from Paris to Madrid on the drill-grounds at Issy-les-Moulineux, in the early dawn of a bright May morning and in the presence of fifty thousand people in holiday spirit and gay attire, the French Minister of War was instantly killed and the Prime Minister was very seriously injured. The fourth of the competitors in the race to start was an aviator named Train, who used a steel monoplane of his own designing. After rising easily from the ground, he made a circle of the great open drill-ground for the purpose of testing his motor. The crowd saw that something was wrong with the machine; and, to satisfy their curiosity, the Premier, the Minister of War, and other men of prominence in the party came forward and took a place near the starting-point, followed by the entire crowd. There was at once a great crush; and, to keep the people in order, a squadron of cuirassiers galloped across the drill-grounds and began to push the crowd back to protect the official party. Train, who was having some trouble with his motor, started at the same time to alight, and, finding himself directly over the troop of cavalry, shot into the air, cleared the soldiers, but, failing to see the group of official civilians who stood behind them, turned his machine to the earth and dashed headlong into the little group. He shut off his power on the instant, but too late. The Minister of War, M. Berteaux, who was directly in the path of the machine, instinctively raised his arm to ward off the danger, and the propeller cut off the arm more quickly than a surgeon could have done it, and the unfortunate man was thrown to the earth insensible and died at once. The Premier, M. Monis, who was standing next the Minister of War, was pinned to the earth underneath the motor, and when he was rescued from the wreck was found to be seriously injured. He was promptly removed to the hospital, received surgical attention, and his recovery is hoped for. It was characteristic of the French spirit that when he received the news that the race had been suspended, he gave orders that it should go on as if nothing had happened. By this unfortunate accident France has lost an able public servant who could ill be spared, and, for the time being at least, has also lost the wise

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guidance of a prudent and efficient Premier. MM. Monis and Berteaux have commanded the respect of all parties by reason of the skill and good sense with which they have managed the recent complications in Morocco. The disaster at Issy-les-Moulineux shows that the perils of aviation are not confined to the men in the air; and it should result in more rigid regulation of the crowds of spectators who are always present on such occasions.

WHO SHALL CONTROL SENATORIAL ELECTIONS?

Two questions are before the United States Senate, but wrapped up in a single resolution. Those questions are, Shall Senators be elected by the direct vote of the people? and, Shall the control of elections to the United States Senate be continued in the hands of the Federal Government or handed over to the several States? The Outlook believes that the first question should be answered in the affirmative and that the people of the United States are determined that it shall be so answered. But it believes just as strongly that the second question should be answered so as to preserve the control of Federal elections by the Federal Government. The House has passed, as it did at the last session, a resolution providing for a Constitutional amendment to establish the popular election of Senators. The resolution is before the Senate, and a vote on it is to be taken on June 12. At the last session a similar resolution failed to pass by the narrow margin of four votes. In the changed Senate its chances seem to be far brighter. But the House resolution contains a provision taking from Congress the control of the times, places, and manner of holding Senatorial elections and vesting it in the State Legislatures. The Outlook believes this provision to be essentially bad. If the resolution is adopted as it stands, each State can provide for the time, place, and manner of electing a Senator according to its own wishes. All uniformity will disappear, dangerous confusion will result, and injustice may follow through the enactment of disfranchisement laws by certain States. Strongly as we advocate the direct election of Senators by the people, we would rather see its consummation postponed than have Congress abdicate its control of Senatorial elections in favor of forty-eight State Legislatures. We feel this the more strongly inasmuch as direct election of United States Senators can be, and in fact has been, virtually secured without Constitutional amendment. We hope the Senate will follow the minority of the Committee on the Judiciary and refuse to accept the resolution unless it is amended so as to eliminate this vicious provision.

THE CARNEGIE ENDOWMENT FOR INTERNATIONAL PEACE

Last week President Butler, of Columbia University, in his address as presiding officer of the Lake Mohonk Conference on International Arbitration, gave out the first announcement concerning the definite work of the recently instituted Endowment for International Peace, due to Mr. Andrew Carnegie's benefaction. The trustees of the Endowment believe that, in the service of humanity, the leading jurists and economists should be set to work to ascertain just what have been, and are, the legal and economic incidents of war, and just what would be the legal and economic advantages if the world were organized into a single group of friendly and cooperating nations, bound together by the idea of a judicial system from whose findings there could be no successful appeal. With these ends in view, the undertaking is to be organized in three divisions—a Division of International Law, a Division of Economics and History, and a Division of Intercourse and Education; in other words, the juristic, the economic, and the educational aspects of the problem of abolishing war by erecting an international judicial system competent to hear and to determine all questions of difference arising among nations. The Division of International Law is to be under the direction of Professor James Brown Scott, late Solicitor of the Department of State and technical delegate to the second Hague Conference. The Division of Economics and History is to be under the direction of Professor John Bates Clark, of Columbia University, eminent economist. The Division of Intercourse and Education is still without a director. When he is

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chosen, the three directors should, as President Butler happily expresses it, become a veritable Faculty of Peace. Thus we hail Mr. Carnegie's gift as opening a new era in diffusing information and in educating public opinion regarding the causes, nature, and effects of war, the means for its prevention, a better understanding of international rights and duties, a finer sense of international justice, and a general acceptance of peaceable methods in the settlement of international disputes whenever justice and peace do not conflict.

OUR NAVY'S RECORD AND NEEDS

Last week, before the Economic Club of New York City, Mr. Meyer, Secretary of the Navy, summarized the record of one of our navy's activities as follows: "In 1898 the percentage of hits at the Battle of Santiago was 3½ per cent. To-day it is 33⅓ per cent, although the range has increased from 3,000 to over 10,000 yards. The rate of firing then was one shot in five minutes, while to-day it is two shots in one minute. A comparison of the increased rate of firing shows that we are twelve hundred times better to-day than we were at Santiago!" Such a record demands proper recognition on the part of our taxpayers. They give it. But Congressmen compel much of the naval appropriation to be diverted to the excessive number of navy-yards. The employment by each navy-yard of many men brings thousands of dollars into the State of some Senator or into the district of some Representative. As a result we have a number of navy-yards where money has been expended lavishly and where it would have not been expended at all if strategic and economic points only had been considered. For instance, the position of the New Orleans yard, a hundred miles up the river, is such that in time of war no large vessels would be sent there on account of the danger of the passes being blocked. As to Pensacola, Florida already has one yard, Key West. As to Port Royal, South Carolina already has one yard, Charleston. New London is nothing more than a coaling station behind the New York, New Haven, and Hartford bridge. The Portsmouth yard is almost next door to the Boston yard. Sackett's Harbor is located on Lake Ontario! San Juan and Culebra are both unnecessary and unused. A year ago The Outlook recommended that these yards and others be abolished, and it is therefore specially gratified to note that Mr. Meyer is taking up this reform. He would abolish the yards at New London, Port Royal, Pensacola, New Orleans, Sackett's Harbor, San Juan, Culebra, and Cavité. Quite outside of the price which the Government might obtain for these properties, there would be a saving, if this were done, of no less than $1,600,000 in annual maintenance expense alone.

"THE JUDICIARY FOR SALE"

"Not in our recollection has a Democratic Governor stooped to so low a bargain as that consummated by John A. Dix when, in exchange for the confirmation of Messrs. Van Tuyl and Holden, he sent to the Senate the nomination of Daniel F. Cohalan for a seat on the Supreme Court bench. . . . This was frankly putting the judiciary up for sale—the highest bidder being Charles F. Murphy—and prostituting the bench. . . . That it is the act of a weak and politically short-sighted man must be apparent to-day to everybody but Governor Dix. Tammany men are openly exulting; they now have the Governor's exact measure, if not his price." These are not the words of a political enemy of Governor Dix. They are from the New York "Evening Post," which did all it could do to help defeat Mr. Stimson and elect Mr. Dix. Mr. Cohalan, whom Governor Dix has placed upon the State bench, has been the political adviser of Charles F. Murphy, the Tammany boss, during a period when Tammany Hall has added to its notoriety as the corrupting foe of good government. This nomination by Governor Dix is one of the natural results of the election last fall. When the polls were opened on election day in November, there were two parties competing for public favor. One party had gone through a struggle against boss rule and had come out of it with the boss defeated; the other party had gone through no such struggle, and the boss was conspicuously

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in control. When, after a hard campaign, the boss-ruled party proved victorious, not only did the boss of the victorious party come into power, but the boss of the defeated party received his vindication. Those people who count themselves respectable and yet by their indifference or their activity contributed to the result have no cause to find fault with Governor Dix. They allowed themselves to be used to serve the ends of self-seeking politicians, and have only themselves to blame. There will be more hope for decency in the government of New York State when people who make the sort of professions to intelligence and virtue that the "Evening Post" makes stop finding fault with the Governor for doing what they bade him by their votes to do, and instead find fault with themselves.

DIRECT NOMINATIONS IN NEW YORK

Inertia, rather than conservatism, accounts for the halting of direct nominations in New York State. Public opinion is in favor of a reform in the primaries which will enable the voters of a party to decide who their nominee shall be. Both the Republican and Democratic parties have pledged themselves to this reform. There are now before the Legislature at least seven bills for the enactment of this reform. Yet the Democratic party, which is now completely in power in the State, seems to be no more efficient, so far, in securing such legislation than the Republican party was. It is now nearly two years and a half since Governor Hughes began the campaign for direct nominations which evoked an unmistakable popular response. Governor Hughes's proposal for direct nominations was made finally in the form of a definite measure with certain distinctive features. This measure was carefully drawn, to the end that the defects of direct nominations as the experience of other States has revealed them might be avoided. This measure (known as the Hinman-Green Bill) provided defenses, in particular, against two abuses. The first is that which arises from what is called the open primary, and consists in the determination of one party's nominations by voters of the opposing party. This abuse the Hughes measure made impossible by provisions for enrollment, and for a closed primary—that is, a primary for each party closed to all but the enrolled voters of that party. The other abuse consists in the elimination of organized leadership and the substitution of furtive control of the party by a highly organized but not responsibly constituted machine. The Hughes measure provided a defense against this by regulating the election of party committees, and by requiring these committees to record openly their choice for party nominees. Among the seven measures now before the New York Legislature, the one which has the "sympathy" of Governor Dix embodies these two features of the Hughes bill. In one respect the Democratic measure is decidedly more defective than its Republican predecessor: it injects party and factional emblems into the primary ballot, and gives to the party committee the exclusive right to the use of the party emblem, thus by implication branding all petitioners as rebels and outcasts. The effect of this in strengthening the faction in power is obvious. Nevertheless, the merits of the bill as a whole outweigh this palpable defect. Since both parties are pledged to this reform, we hope the Republicans and the Democrats will cooperate in perfecting a measure with the distinctive New York features, and making it law.

SHALL BUFFALO HAVE THE GOVERNMENT THAT ITS PEOPLE WANT?

The problem of municipal government is one of the most important as well as one of the hardest which the American people have to solve. It is also the governmental problem with which they have up to the present day had the least success. It is in the control and regulation of municipal affairs that America is most markedly inferior to Europe. One of the reasons for this inferiority is the fact that in this country we have not given sufficient thought to the question, Where should lie the authority to determine what kind of a government a city shall have? We have devoted little attention to the theory underlying this question, and our practice has been almost universally wrong. The first step toward a cure for the fundamental ills of city government lies in the direction of home rule. The

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people of the city itself should determine what kind of a government it shall have. This question is prominently before the people of the State of New York at the present moment. The city of Buffalo has a form of government which is cumbrous, complicated, and productive of inefficiency, if not of corruption. There is strong evidence that few of the citizens of Buffalo, except perhaps those who profit politically or otherwise from the complications of the charter, are satisfied with it. In 1908 a referendum vote in the city asking the Legislature for a new and simplified charter which should provide the largest possible amount of home rule was carried by a vote of three to one. In 1909 a second referendum vote asking the Legislature for a charter along the lines of commission government was carried by a vote of nearly three and a half to one. In spite of these expressions of the desire of the citizens of Buffalo, a bill to comply with the request was smothered in committee in the last Legislature. A new bill is before the present Legislature, and comes up for consideration in the Senate during the present week. Whether the identical bill which is in the Assembly will be reported out of committee or not seems uncertain. The bill provides a charter establishing the commission form of government for Buffalo. It contains the familiar features of this form of government—a small council of five members exercising the legislative and administrative functions, non-partisan election, the initiative, referendum, and recall. The bill provides that the charter shall not go into effect until it has been approved by the voters of the city at a special election. Failure to enact this bill into law would be a denial of the principle of home rule, and a grave injustice to the people of Buffalo.

THE GRAND RAPIDS IDEA

The latest theory to be developed in the evolution of municipal government is the "Grand Rapids idea"—an idea which may be destined to become as famous as the commission plan. The new Grand Rapids charter has not yet been submitted to the people. But it contains original provisions of such character as to have already attracted wide interest among students of civic reform. Grand Rapids proposes to use "the cabinet plan" as set off against the "commission plan;" and it is declared that the Grand Rapids idea saves all of the advantages which reside in commission government and eliminates all of the evils attaching thereto. A non-partisan Mayor, upon whom responsibility is directly concentrated, heads the city government. He is, in fact and in name, in theory and in practice, the general manager of the municipality. Under him the administration of city affairs is grouped into four departments: Public Health and Safety, Finance and Accounting, Public Works, Parks and Public Property. At the head of each department is a department general manager, who is appointed by the Mayor for service during good behavior. These four department managers constitute the Mayor's cabinet (modeled after the Federal Presidential Cabinet plan); and the cabinet, with the Mayor, constitutes an Administrative Board in which is vested the complete administrative authority of the city. Meanwhile, the legislative functions—which are entirely separated from the administrative functions—are intrusted to a Common Council of twelve members. One objection urged against the so-called commission plan is that both legislative and administrative functions are joined in a single body—a juncture which is hostile to the American idea of governmental organization. Another objection is that the commission plan requires the popular election of administrative department heads, who should be employed because of their peculiar fitness and ability for the task in hand rather than because they happen to be able to get the votes. Both objections are overcome in the Grand Rapids cabinet idea; and yet every real advantage of the commission plan is saved. The Grand Rapids plan, furthermore, retains the purely legislative body which is characteristic of American governmental ideas, as evident in every State and in the Union of States itself. The Grand Rapids charter contains many features that have characterized municipal reform in other places—the "short ballot," the elimination of party nominations, the initiative, referendum, and recall, restrictions of franchises, and the recogni-

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tion of the need of civic centers by the establishment of an appropriate commission. In those respects in which it is experimental this charter is worthy of study by other municipalities.

A GREAT PUBLIC LIBRARY

New York has recently dedicated a number of buildings which register the advance of the city of imperial proportions and dignity which is steadily rising out of the New York of what may be called the middle age. The group of buildings in which the Union Theological Seminary is housed, the unfinished Cathedral on Morningside Heights, the Pennsylvania Railroad Station, and now the new Public Library, on Fifth Avenue, which was dedicated and opened for public use last week, mark a progressive endeavor to meet the needs of the city and to interpret its future greatness in architecture. The new Public Library combines the resources of the Astor, the Lenox, and the Tilden foundations. The libraries of the Historical Society and the Hispanic Society, which are in special fields, are already worthily housed. The artist finds a large collection of books at the Metropolitan Museum, and the architect may study the text-books of his profession in the Avery Library at Columbia University. Now for the first time the citizen finds in the new Public Library access to a great collection of volumes, adequately and nobly housed, on a foundation which provides for the rapid enlargement of the collection along every line of human thought and knowledge. The exercises of dedication were simple and deeply interesting, though they were heard by a comparatively small number of auditors. The principal addresses were made by President Taft and Mr. George L. Rives; Mr. John Bigelow, who is in the ninety-fourth year of his age, presided. Mr. Rives gave a rapid sketch of the history of the library, which began, he said, with the evacuation of New York by the British troops; for in that year Mr. John Jacob Astor left London for New York to found a fortune by fur-trading, out of which, in 1849, he endowed the Astor Library. James Lenox established the Lenox Library twenty-one years later, and Mr. Rives described the circumstances which attended the creation of the Tilden Foundation, with some account of the history of the consolidation of the three libraries, effected in 1895. Mr. Thomas Hastings, the architect of the building, in presenting the Library to Commissioner Stover, took occasion to speak of his late partner, Mr. John M. Carrère, who had so large a share in the designing and building of the Library, and whose early death was a great loss to American architecture. Mr. Bigelow spoke from his own recollection of the entire period from the founding of the Library in 1849. He recalled Mr. Tilden's uncertainty of mind when he discovered that about ninety per cent of the books taken from the Boston Public Library were works of fiction, and the question raised in his mind whether it was worth while to devote so much money to fostering an appetite for imaginative literature. Mr. Bigelow told him that the first printed writing that had made any impression on his own mind were the Melodies of Mother Goose, and he quoted Charles Lamb, "Nonsense is the children's best sense," adding that every one must begin by reading what interests him, and that imaginative literature is far more captivating than any other to people in whom genuine taste for literature has not yet been developed. President Taft spoke of the dedication as crowning a work of National importance, and emphasized the fact that it is not so much the resources of a library which constitute its chief value as its facility for the distribution and circulation of the books, and declared that, in his judgment, to have secured the consent of the trustees of the various foundations, obtained the necessary legislation, the authority from the city to use this magnificent site, and the appropriation of the money required, not only made the day noteworthy, but commemorated a most remarkable success of disinterested human effort in the cause of philanthropy. The Library was thrown open to the public on the following morning.

MUSIC SCHOOL SETTLEMENTS

Almost any afternoon one may see children waiting in the hallway of a house on East Third Street, in New York City. They are hungry children—hungry for

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music. The house is the Music School Settlement. These waiting children are not regular pupils who have come too early for their lessons; they are there simply because they hope that some of the regularly enrolled pupils in the Settlement may fail to be present, and consequently some of the patient waiters may be able to get instruction. The settlement originated about seventeen years ago, when Miss Emily Wagner, from Baltimore, came to New York with a plan of giving music lessons to poor children at low prices. A room was provided for her in Mariners' Temple, in Oliver Street, where she began her courses of lessons on the piano and the violin. Now the Music School Settlement has an enrollment of over eight hundred pupils and a hundred teachers. Pupils are instructed on the piano, violin, and cello; in singing, sight-reading, musical theory, and *ensemble* playing and singing. The pupils pay twenty-five cents for a half-hour lesson. Those who are too poor to pay twenty-five cents have the advantage of certain scholarships which reduce the price still further; but every pupil must pay something. Only those pupils are admitted who are in school or in some employment. The purpose of the Settlement is, not to create professional musicians or discover genius, but to give to those who want it the power to share in the riches of musical art, and to find in music a refreshing and educative pleasure. As a consequence, the Settlement has turned away thousands of applicants for instruction. So great has been the success of this Settlement that similar Settlements have been established in other cities. These other Settlements have often turned to the parent school as a source of information and as an example to be followed. On Sunday, May 21, a Conference was held in New York at the Music School Settlement House for the purpose of discussing the development of this new social movement. Delegates were present from two Music School Settlements in Boston, and from Albany, Providence, Philadelphia, Brooklyn, New Rochelle, Pittsfield, Rochester, and from the Armstrong Society for Colored People in New York City. Other Music School Settlements were unable to send representatives because of the distance. Beside the addresses, music was provided by the orchestra of the Music School Settlement, numbering one hundred and twenty players. At the close of the session an American Federation of Music School Settlements was formed. That appreciation of what is highest and soundest in music exists in all kinds of communities and among all classes of people in America has been shown time and again. Just now the Boston Music School Settlement is making special effort to raise funds for maintenance and for a new building. The principle of the Music School Settlement is applicable to any community, whether it be the big city or a modest village. We hope that the new Federation will be the means of extending Music School Settlements throughout the country.

MUSIC FOR NEGROES

Almost simultaneous with the establishment of this Federation of Music Schools came the organization of a Music School for Negroes. This school may be said to have had its origin years ago, when a Negro violinist helped to implant a knowledge of music and skill in the violin in the brain of a white lad. This Negro violinist was named Douglas. As a young man he was taken to Europe, studied under a pupil of one of the greatest of violinists, Spohr, and returned to America with an ambition for achievement in his art. He could not, however, make his way against prejudices. In order to eke out a living he had to turn to common fiddling. One day, however, he encountered a little white boy with a little fiddle who was trying to teach himself how to play. The Negro violinist, with his European training, there found his chance to do something for his art, and he gave to that child all the skill that he could. That white child grew up to manhood. He is David Mannes, now the Director of the New York Music School Settlement, and in starting the Music School for Negroes he has undertaken to repay to the race what he received from that Negro fiddler. Mr. Mannes recognizes, as do practically all musicians, that among the Negroes there is very wide distribution of natural musical gifts. It is possible that through such instrumentalities as this music school for

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Negroes a valuable American resource may be developed.

FREDERIC PORTER VINTON

The world of art is appreciably poorer by the passing of Frederic Porter Vinton. He was sixty-five years old. He was born in Maine. He drifted to Boston, and became a bank clerk there. But the painter in him was already manifesting itself in his night studies and his vacation work, and this attracted the attention of William Hunt, who, with Léon Bonnat later, became Vinton's godfather in art. As art students know, Bonnat's method in portraiture is that of solid construction. So well did his pupil follow it that recently, when the venerable master was shown photographs of Vinton's work, without being told the name of their creator, he exclaimed, "*Mais, c'est magnifique!*" The Bonnat-Vinton method means, first, a minutely accurate drawing of the subject on the canvas before any color is applied, and, second, the application of that color with a fine feeling for values. This is not the Sargent method. One day, so the story goes, Sargent dropped into Vinton's studio and saw the beginning of a portrait. "I could never do it that way," he exclaimed. "But how do you do it?" asked Vinton. "Why, I begin and draw—in paint—and draw and draw and go on drawing, and then"—thinking a moment—"why, then it's done." Among Boston artists Vinton divided portraiture honors with the late B. C. Porter, until the latter's removal to New York. Porter's *forte* was in the delineation of women. His individuality was apparent not so much in the faces of his subjects as in his skill in the arrangement of their hair, dress, draperies, and all the accompaniments which accentuate a woman's natural charm. Vinton, on the other hand, never added to his fame by his attempts at painting women, and, in any event, rather despised "accessories." He painted the portraits of an incredible number of Boston worthies, but the best known of his works is doubtless the full-length likeness, now hanging in the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, of William Warren, the actor—a Velasquez-like canvas. Like the late Walter Shirlaw, Vinton worked hard always. But the two men never allowed their work unduly to encroach upon the amenities of life or obscure their individual personalities. Thus they were as welcome at the dinner-table as in the studio. The world is gentler and finer because such spirits have lived and live in it.

L'ENFANT: ARCHITECT AND ARTIST

The unveiling of a monument to Major Pierre Charles L'Enfant, architect, engineer, soldier, prophet, in the National Cemetery at Arlington last week was a long-deferred recognition of a man of vision and genius. President Taft, the French Ambassador, and Senator Root spoke in eulogy of the brilliant and far-seeing Frenchman who, a century ago, saw what the city of Washington ought to be if it was fittingly to interpret the interests, power, and ideals of a great republican country. L'Enfant was the son of a painter, born in Paris. He held the rank of lieutenant of engineers in the French army, and came to America with the fleet of Beaumarchais, uniting his fortunes with those of the colonists as a volunteer, at his own expense, and later was promoted to the rank of major. When Washington was selected as the site of the future capital, L'Enfant was asked to lay out the model city. It was fortunate that he was at hand, and that Dr. William Thornton, a West Indian, was also within reach; for it was Thornton who planned the Capitol, one of the noblest architectural monuments in the country. L'Enfant went into what was then the wilderness, chose the site on which the Capitol now stands, and a site for the White House, and laid out broad streets in such a way that the Capitol dominated the city of the future. Some features of his plan were fortunately adopted at the start; later Washington, like every other American city, was dealt with from the real estate rather than from the artistic point of view. At last, and not too late, L'Enfant's vision has taken possession of the minds of a host of Americans, and is likely to be realized through the efforts and plans of a group of far-seeing architects. Notwithstanding the American genius for dealing with practical affairs, Americans have been singularly short-sighted. They have again and again, in every direction, killed the

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goose that lays the golden egg. Not until the last two or three decades have they taken any account of the future. They have built for the day, almost for the hour. There is no longer any excuse, either on æsthetic or on business grounds, for this short-sighted policy. Beauty is a great material resource as well as a great educational force; and the commemoration of L'Enfant ought to give fresh impulse to the movement to make Washington a beautiful city.

NEW DISCOVERIES AT THE ROCKEFELLER INSTITUTE

The May number of the "Journal of Experimental Medicine" records a new discovery by Dr. Meltzer, of the Rockefeller Institute, which points the way to an explanation of one of the means by which poisons or beneficent medicines may find their way through the animal system. Heretofore it has been taken for granted that all substances in any way affecting the body, whether introduced through the stomach or by hypodermic injections, first found their way through the venous circulation to the heart, and then were distributed by the arteries throughout the system. It has been an axiom that cardiac activity is vital; that when the heart permanently stops beating, life ceases; that when the circulation is locally impaired, decay sets in at once. Dr. Meltzer, however, reports some strange results of experiments which he is still prosecuting. So far they have been confined to frogs. After subjecting the frog to an anæsthetic, the heart was in some cases separated by ligatures from the circulatory system, and in other cases actually removed. After the operation, when the effect of the ether had worn off, the frog showed for some hours almost normal conditions of life, turning over when placed upon its back, jumping when touched, etc. Various substances were then injected into the leg or back, and the effect noted. Adrenalin, when injected, soon caused the pupils of the eyes to dilate precisely as in the case of the normal animal. This effect was still shown, though more slightly, after the frog had been dead, but kept wrapped in moist paper in a refrigerator at a uniform low temperature, from twenty-four to forty-eight hours. Of course the drug did not reach the eyes through the ordinary circulation. But a still more marvelous result was obtained when the eyeballs were removed from a frog twenty-four hours dead and replaced by those taken from another frog recently killed. Here was no physical connection, and yet the pupils of the eyeballs inserted dilated in less than an hour when adrenalin was injected into the body. This result was obtained, not by diffusion alone or force of gravity, for the result was the same whether the frog was suspended with the head up or otherwise. Similar experiments with strychnine showed the usual effect upon the spinal cord, producing violent tetanic convulsions, no matter where it was injected. Morphine produced remarkable and unexpected phenomena. At first the animal was quiet, then suddenly began to jump about, and finally had all the symptoms of tetanus, but all these symptoms were produced much more quickly than when the same amount of morphine was injected into frogs in which the ordinary circulation had not been interfered with. The experimenters believe that this is due to the fact that in the normal circulation of the blood there are secretions introduced which have for their object a deterrent effect upon the poisonous action of the morphine. Dr. Meltzer concludes his preliminary paper by suggesting that the distribution of the drugs takes place through the spaces separating tissues, and through the fluids other than those of the blood which fills these spaces, thus giving a more or less connected system of communication throughout the entire body.

THE GROWTH OF TISSUES

The same number of the "Journal of Experimental Medicine" has another interesting report from the Rockefeller Institute, being a continuation of the experiments, heretofore noticed in The Outlook, for the control of the growth of tissues. Profiting by the fact established last year, that tissues of organs can be grown artificially outside of the body, in the "plasma," it occurred to Drs. Carrel and Burrows to see what effect would be produced by the alteration of the normal plasma through its dilution with water or the addition of saline or alkaline compounds in varying proportions. Ex-

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perimenting in this case with the spleen, after demonstrating that sections of this organ also can be made to grow readily by cell-building outside of the parent body, they found that the growth could be enormously increased by slight changes in the plasmic solution; in other words, that the plasma in the human body is not suited to favor the *maximum* development of any organ. Were such the case, an organ might grow to abnormal size, to the detriment of the system to which it belonged. These experiments, if confirmed, may point the way to the introduction into the circulation of substances which will stimulate the plasmic medium and cause development of any organ which for some reason has not reached its proper development in the body. In summing up their conclusions, these experimenters say: "The growth of the tissues of mammals is probably controlled by the conditions of the lymph, the same way that the growth of the egg of the sea-urchin is influenced by the condition of the sea water (as demonstrated by Professor Loeb). The components of the blood are most important in regulating the growth of the body, and it may be assumed that the facts discovered by Loeb in regard to the lower marine organisms are but the expressions of general laws which control the tissues and organs of higher animals as well. Even so simple an expedient as adding distilled water to the lymph or plasma, thereby diluting it, caused extraordinary increase in splenic growth." In experiments with tissues from the liver and heart, dilution alone failed to increase the rate of growth. "Even if the determination of the medium best suited for the maximal growth of an organ does not lead immediately to a practical application and knowledge of the best conditions, it may lead to the discovery of some of the means which regulate the development of organs and compel them to comply with the intended plan of the development for that organism."

WHAT IS PRESBYTERIAN HERESY?

Since 1900, when the General Assembly dismissed, "for the peace of the Church," the final solitary protestant against the alleged heresies of Professor McGiffert, that peace has not been disturbed by a theological flurry until this year. Two such flurries indeed, winds from different quarters, met at Atlantic City, New Jersey, where the Assembly convened this year, as last. Those interested in raising the breeze seem, from the heralding given by press agents to its approach, to have been desirous of rousing a lively public interest by wide advertisement of the expected "trials for heresy." The more prominent of the two cases was that of the Rev. Dr. Grant, of Northumberland, Pennsylvania, of Scotch Presbyterian birth and ancestry, and a graduate of Union Theological Seminary in 1887, whose prosecutors appealed from their dismissal by his Presbytery. Their hearing and his occupied the Assembly's Judicial Commission for days. The press reports of their charges brought from many parts of the country telegrams to the Moderator (Dr. John F. Carson, of Brooklyn) protesting in the name of religion against the dissemination of such sensational accounts. Dr. Grant made a manly reply to his accusers in assertion of his loyalty to the historic evangelical faith, and freedom to differ with mediæval opinions discredited by modern learning. A letter was read, signed by seven trustees and two elders of the Northumberland church, stating that its condition is entirely harmonious and asking the Commission to dismiss the prosecutors. Nevertheless, the Commission that heard the charges found that Dr. Grant had "taught doctrines contrary to the word of God in the Bible, and the Presbyterian Confession of Faith." The Assembly overwhelmingly sustained this finding. Dr. Grant can be reinstated by satisfying the Presbytery which has already acquitted him that he will no longer teach the offensive doctrines. This verdict is unpleasant for Dr. Grant and his friends, but to the Presbyterian Church it is distinctly injurious. The second case was another episode in the long quarrel between the progressive and the reactionary sides of the Church. President Francis Brown, of Union Theological Seminary, and his associate, Professor William Adams Brown, were accused of seeming to be "in defiance of the authority of the General Assembly" by publications

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"apparently in direct contradiction to the truths declared essential and necessary" by last year's Assembly. These papers were President Brown's address on "The Church and Its Creeds" at the opening of the Seminary last autumn, and Professor Brown's article in the "Harvard Theological Review" last January on "The Old Theology and the New"—both of them republished by the New York "Observer," and in evidence at the Assembly. It is palpably evident that it is the modern spirit rather than explicit statements of these papers that is resented. The prime mover of the case failed to induce his own Presbytery of Pittsburgh to take it up, but found the Iowa and West Jersey Presbyteries willing to overture the Assembly "to take such action as in its wisdom may seem best to preserve the authority of the Assembly, and secure the purity of our confessional doctrine." The Committee on Overtures, to whom this was referred, unanimously reported that they found nothing in the articles complained of "to suggest defiance of or even reference to the deliverances of the Assembly," "nor any sufficient reason for diverting the interest and the energies of the Church from the great practical enterprises now absorbing its attention." This report would doubtless have been adopted at once but for an indignant objector on the floor moving a substitute, which was then assigned for debate on the day following. In the result the Assembly can hardly reject the wise counsel of its unanimous committee. All reasonable well-wishers to the Church will rejoice in the defeat of such ill-advised attempts to waste its energies in futile quarrels.

AN INTERCHURCH COLLEGE

A notable movement of large promise is now in its early stage, and well under way, with a wide welcome, in our Southern States. A year ago the American Interchurch College for Religious and Social Workers was incorporated at Nashville, Tennessee. Several Southern Churches—Baptist, Methodist, Presbyterian—have recently organized denominational training-schools. The new movement plans for these and other denominations to group their schools and dormitories around the Interchurch College, as the administrative center in which all can share instruction given by specialists in many lines of study. On its Board of Directors seven strong denominations are now represented. The primary work now in hand is the purchase of suitable grounds at Nashville, for which a hopeful sum is in sight, and more is needed for the half-million required. For endowment of the chairs of instruction a little more than that sum is sought for. To plant such a school, the only one of its kind, in a territory with thirty millions of people, is an opportunity that should appeal to large-minded men of wealth. On the college campus now to be secured the co-operating churches are to erect the buildings necessary for their own students, and the college will provide the central buildings for common use—class-rooms, library, chapel, etc. Such instruction in denominational doctrine, polity, and methods as the co-operating churches desire for their own students they will provide separately on their own grounds. A Negro branch of the new college, with its separate Board of Trustees, composed of both whites and blacks, is a fixed part of the plan. Dr. Booker T. Washington and President Gates, of Fisk University, Nashville, are among the members of the Board. A noteworthy spirit of co-operation in this branch of the new movement is manifest. Southern girls are giving themselves to the training of colored workers in religious and social lines. What this means as significant of the new South now developing is clear enough. Such, in its main outlines, is this important undertaking. It has begun auspiciously in having obtained for the laboring oar the Rev. J. E. McCulloch, who resigns the presidency of the Methodist Training-School at Nashville, in which he has been eminently successful, to work for this larger enterprise as its General Secretary. In the new emphasis now put by the Church on social religious service, the need of laic as well as ministerial training for it is felt to be no less imperative in the South than in the teeming cities of the North. The institution of the Interchurch College to supply it, commendable on grounds of efficiency and economy, is commendable also as

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promotive of practical church union between denominations divided by doctrinal, ecclesiastical, and racial differences.

GOVERNMENT OWNERSHIP OF THE TELEPHONE SYSTEM IN ENGLAND

The telephone system of Great Britain is within a few months to be transferred from the National Telephone Company to the Government, in pursuance of an arrangement made in 1895; and with the approach of the date of transfer there has been much eagerness on the part of telephone users, as represented by chambers of commerce and municipal councils, for a statement of the policy of the Government with regard to its new undertaking. The negotiations of sixteen years ago were managed by the Post-Office, and, as was the case in 1869 when the Government took over the telegraph lines from private companies, the telephone system, when it comes into the possession of the Government, will become a department of the Post-Office. In his statement the Postmaster-General defines the three main principles which will govern the administration of the national telephone system. These are: (1) that efficiency in the telephone service is to be of prime importance; (2) that it is the duty of the Government to take all measures within its power to make the telephone as widely available as possible; and (3) that the telephone system shall not be expected to provide a large surplus which shall go towards the relief of Imperial taxation. In elaborating the second of these principles, Mr. Samuel admits, what has often been strongly asserted by American critics of the British system, that it is as yet "very insufficiently developed." With regard to the matter of rates it is worthy of note that, although the mail service in England for generations past has contributed a surplus to the reduction of Imperial taxation, the telegraph service has never so contributed, partly because the Government years ago agreed to allow unremunerative tolls in news service. This time there is to be no such bargain with telephone users. The telephone service, Mr. Samuel thinks, should not be subsidized. With reference to the proposition that the publicly owned telephone might be administered, at least in part, by municipalities, the Postmaster-General says that the telephone business is exceedingly technical, and it is essential that it should be supervised by a highly trained and consequently highly paid expert, who should be always watching the course of telephonic inventions, always experimenting, and always developing upon the newest lines; and that the ordinary municipality is seldom in the position to have at its command experts of the caliber which the great Government department could without difficulty secure.

THE STANDARD OIL DECISION—AND AFTER

The decision of the Supreme Court in the Standard Oil Case has, of course, brought out many proposals for altering or amending the Anti-Trust Law. There are two classes of men whose respective attitudes in reference to this law are in theory diametrically opposed, and in results almost identically the same: those men who wish no interference whatever by the Government with any combinations or corporations; and those men who, under the plea of being against all combinations and big corporations, propose absolutely to prohibit their existence.

In theory these two sets of men are diametrically opposed. In practice the activities of the second class, who wish totally to prohibit all corporations, can result only in practically fulfilling the wish of the first class by leaving the present situation fundamentally unchanged. Actual experience with the Anti-Trust Law extending over many years has shown that it does not and cannot by any possibility be made to do what the extreme antagonists of corporations desire or assert that they desire. As construed by the Supreme Court, the Anti-Trust Law accomplishes a certain amount of good, and it has been a good thing to obtain the decision that has been obtained against the Standard Oil Company. But as a means of effectually grappling on behalf of the whole people with the problem created by what are commonly called trusts—that is, of enormous combinations of corporate capital engaged in inter-State business—the Anti-

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Trust Law is radically and vitally defective, and any effort to strengthen it would be worse than futile, and would result only in prolonging the time during which the corporations will escape control of the kind demanded in the interests of the people. The Anti-Trust Law was framed on the theory that it was possible to turn back the wheels of progress in industrialism, and in an age of combination to put a stop to the combinations under which business was carried on. While, as I have said, the Anti-Trust Law as now construed does accomplish a certain amount of good, it was out of the question that, framed as it was in such a spirit and with such a purpose, it could achieve in any but the smallest degree what its framers hoped; and any effort to achieve this purpose simply by making the law more stringent will result either in nothing or in changing the situation for the worse.

The Inter-State Commerce Law was framed on precisely the opposite theory. It was framed on the theory that certain monopolies—for every railway is, because of its very nature, to a certain extent a monopoly, or has a certain monopolistic tendency—because of their tremendous power as business entities and of the impossibility of the individual man grappling with them on even terms, should be rigidly supervised and controlled by the agent of the people as a whole, that is, by the National Government. We are as yet very far from having achieved the best possible results under the Inter-State Commerce Law, but we have steadily improved both the law and its administration, and are accomplishing far more for the control of those monopolies called railways under the Inter-State Commerce Law than is now being accomplished, or can by any possibility be accomplished, in the way of control of other business monopolies by the Anti-Trust Law or any alteration thereof.

What is urgently needed is the enactment of drastic and far-reaching legislation which shall put the great inter-State business corporations of the type of the Standard Oil Company, the Sugar Trust, the Steel Trust, and the like, at least as completely under the control and regulation of the Government in each and every respect as the inter-State railways are now put. To break up the Standard Oil Company, as the recent decision has broken it up, does a certain amount of good; but it does not do anything like the amount of good that would be achieved from the standpoint of the public if the proper Governmental body were given the same supervision and control over it as the Inter-State Commerce Commission has established over certain of the railways of the country. It may well be that in the end Government control of these great inter-State corporations may have to go much further than is indicated by the present Government control over the railways; but, in any event, the only possible satisfactory method of dealing with these great corporations of a monopolistic trend which are not railways is to follow the lines along which the Nation has gone in dealing with those of them which are railways, altering and developing the policy as conditions and events shall justify. Our prime object must be to have the regulation accomplished by continuous administrative action, and not by necessarily intermittent lawsuits.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

THE IGNORANCE OF VALOR

"The Valor of Ignorance," by Homer Lea, published in 1909 by Harper & Brothers, appears to have been taken more seriously in England than in the United States. It is a plea for militarism. We recommend it to the careful consideration of all who believe in lessening national armaments, in lightening military burdens, and in substituting the appeal to reason for the appeal to force. We recommend it to them because it puts in at least the form of philosophy, and with a certain marshaling of figures, the grounds for opinions put in fragmentary forms in certain of our newspapers, and held in solution, unexpressed, by certain classes of our population. Because we believe in a navy only large enough to make reasonably safe our two coasts and our insular possessions, and in an army only large enough to perform those functions which are necessary for even so peaceful a nation as the United States, and in the substitution, as far and as fast as possible, of

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arbitration for war, we have read with interest this book which advocates a larger navy and a large standing army, and states its estimate of the cause of international arbitration in the following terms :

No people are so visionary and none hang more persistently on to the coat-tails of false gods as those who have enough education to read but not enough learning to be able to distinguish between what is false and what is true. It is on account of the prevalency of this smattering of education in the United States that every ism has its followers, every form of religious dementia its sanctuary and apostles, every visionary his devotees ; and it matters in no way from what depths of absurdity they may come up, they have their adherents. Usually these delusions are harmful only to the individual, and as such are not worthy of concern, but when the hallucination is apt to become so widespread as to affect the welfare of the Nation, then it is time to point out the mockery of their hopes and the quicksands into which their aspirations have led them. In this class of visionaries we place International Arbitrationists and Disarmamentists, who are so persistently striving through subservient politicians, through feminism, clericalism, sophism and other such toilers, to drag this already much deluded Republic into that Brobdingnagian swamp from whose deadly gases there is no escape.

This modest patriot has come to the rescue of his deluded country none too soon. For this dreadful delusion of International Arbitration has already swept into the constantly swelling current of its advocates a score or more of college presidents, the foremost of the clergy, Jewish, Protestant, and Roman Catholic, some, if not most, of our ablest international lawyers, most of the principal Chambers of Commerce and Boards of Trade in the country, the President of the United States, the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs of Great Britain, and with them the leading publicists in both the great parties in both countries, and some leading representatives in both army and navy who are not unknown to fame ; and, what is even more serious, it has actually been in successful operation for nearly a hundred years, and is largely responsible for the century of peace between America and Great Britain which we shall celebrate in 1914. We really fear that this Mrs. Partington will not be able with her broom to sweep back the rising peace tide in democracy the world over.

Mr. Lea calls his book " The Valor of Ignorance." We call it " The Ignorance of Valor."

At the outset let us say that there is some truth in his contention. It is true that America's valor is partly a valor of ignorance, partly a valor of self-conceit. It is true that the ocean is no longer a barrier between the United States and armed forces to the west of us and other armed forces to the east of us ; that the Atlantic is no safeguard against England or Germany, the Pacific no safeguard against Japan. It is true that Germany has a fleet of steamships large enough to transport a force of a quarter of a million of men across the Atlantic, and Japan a fleet of steamships large enough to transport a force of equal size across the Pacific, and that, if we had no navy, we should have no adequate means of preventing their landing on our coast. It is true that our present navy, which, until the Panama Canal is completed, cannot be concentrated, must either leave one coast undefended or else be divided between the two coasts, and that this would leave both coasts undefended and the navy itself incapable of self-defense. It is true that Japan protested against our acquisition of the Hawaiian Islands, and has never withdrawn her protest, and that under our fatuous policy, which has allowed unlimited immigration of Japanese into those islands and has forbidden them to become American citizens, there are in Hawaii upwards of sixty thousand Japanese, many of them veterans of the Russo-Japanese War, and that in the event of war between Japan and the United States these sixty thousand would probably prove themselves Japanese, not Americans. It is true that most Americans neither know these facts nor want to know them ; that our rapid growth in wealth and population and our easy victory over Spain have fed a National self-conceit that needed no feeding ; and that we delight to think ourselves the greatest nation on earth, which is simply not true. For purposes of war America is not more than a second-rate power.

Having said this, we have said all that we can say for the clamorous claims of militarism as interpreted by Mr. Homer Lea. That if war should break out with Japan it is highly probable that she could seize upon Hawaii and upon the Philip-

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pines before the United States could come to their defense, and that, were it not for our navy, she might land an army of considerable size on our Pacific slope, and even take possession of it from the ocean to the mountains, is not impossible. Such an occupation might inflict on the coast a damage as great as was inflicted by the earthquake and the fire in San Francisco, or even a greater damage, and a National humiliation only less than the subsequent revelation of corruption in that afflicted city. But the notion that a nation which in its infancy, with a population of three or four millions, could not be held in subjection by Great Britain, could in its manhood, with a population of ninety millions, be brought into subjection by Japan is a nightmare brought on by an undigested mass of facts, figures, and unscholarly theories.

We call these theories of the military pessimist unscholarly because they deny the fundamental postulate of modern science —evolution. "War—victory—a nation. War—destruction—dissolution. Such," says he, "is the melancholy epitome of national existence, and such has it been from the beginning of human association until to-day." And therefore such it must ever continue to be! This is nonsense—that is, no sense—this pessimistic philosophy that moral reform is always impossible; that the world moves in a great cycle; that to-morrow does but repeat in a different form yesterday; that human nature cannot be changed; that what always has been in the past must always be in the future; that only the visionary can imagine that war can be dispensed with, and that the practical man, the man of affairs, the man who knows history and understands human nature, will be content simply to provide for the inevitable war and make it as little disastrous to his part of the country as possible.

We meet this pessimistic philosophy with an emphatic denial of every one of its positions. We deny that the world moves in a cycle; that to-morrow reproduces yesterday; that we cannot change human nature; that what always has been must be; and that all we can do is to recognize the inevitable and prepare to meet it. The world of men is moving forward from an earlier and savage state to a future and truly civilized state. Humanity no more moves in a cycle than the individual man moves in a cycle. Every man has passed, in the earliest stages of his growth, through the various animal conditions before at birth he became the beginning of a man. Every individual man, in his subsequent growth, in childhood and youth, passes through a semi-barbarism modified by parental and social control and parental influences, and emerges at length, if rightly educated and trained, into a full-grown man, with ideals of truth and righteousness, and with power of self-control which enables him to shape his conduct according to those ideals. Historically, man has similarly emerged from a lower animal condition, passed through the various stages of barbarism—stone age, bronze age, iron age, and all the rest—to his present semi-Christianized, semi-civilized stage of development. Socially, at first came the family, which has been well called the germ-cell of society; then, by combination of families, the tribe; then, by union of tribes, the nation; then, by the unification of different nationalities homogeneous in race, the greater nation, as the German Empire was formed out of the German provinces, and Italy out of the Italian provinces. Last of all, we are coming into that stage of society in which the nations are increasingly recognizing their international relations and looking forward to some form of true international unity. The whole doctrine of evolution, accepted now by all scholars in all departments of learning, is absolutely inconsistent with the pessimistic notion that the world moves in a cycle, that history repeats itself, that we cannot change human nature, that to-morrow is but a repetition in a different form of yesterday. We can change human nature and are changing it. Human nature in America in the twentieth century is not the same as human nature in Rome in the first century. Society has abolished private war and family war. The long campaign between the Guelphs and the Ghibellines will not be reproduced in American democracy. We have abolished private war by providing a substitute for it. We propose to abolish international war by providing a substitute for it.

This moral and intellectual progress of

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the human race has already abolished or substantially abolished two chief causes of war in past times. One of these causes was greed of gain, unrestrained by either personal or social conscience. Many of the great wars of past history were simply wars made by highway robbers on a great scale. The strong nation gobbled up its weaker neighbor because it wanted its territory and had power to take it. No excuse was demanded and none was offered. Might made right and all the right there was. The moral and social development of mankind has put an end to these robber wars among genuinely civilized countries. The days of Darius the Great, Alexander the Great, Julius Cæsar, and even of Napoleon Bonaparte are past and will not return. If in the war between Italy and Austria Italy takes Venice from Austria, she defends the taking because Venice was formerly a part of Italy; if in the war between Germany and France Germany demands Alsace-Lorraine, she defends the demand because formerly Alsace and Lorraine belonged to Germany. Mere national highway robbery belongs to past ages. Even if a Julius Cæsar or a Napoleon Bonaparte should arise, the widespread intelligence of the masses of the people would prevent them from following such a leader into a campaign the only and avowed object of which was a gigantic plundering of a weaker neighbor, unless they were swept into it by cunningly stimulated popular passion and prejudice. Napoleon carried off art treasures from Italy as the booty of war to add to the wealth of Paris. The most important of these treasures have been returned. John Pierpont Morgan by peaceful purchase has brought to the United States art treasures from Italy. They will remain. And it cost Mr. Morgan immeasurably less to buy from Italy than it cost Napoleon to plunder from Italy. Even if Japan could land two hundred and fifty thousand troops on our Pacific coast and hold the territory, she will not attempt to do it unless by our fatuous folly we provoke her excessive pride. Far more money can be made by trading with a country than by conquering it and taxing it. Robber wars are no longer profitable among civilized nations.

A second great cause of war has been religious controversy, and religious controversy will not, it is safe to predict, bring on another war. No Duke of Alva will again attempt to ravage a Holland, no Cromwell to ravage an Ireland. This is not because the Roman Catholic is less of a Roman Catholic, not because the Protestant is less of a Protestant, but because both have learned the lesson of religious liberty, because each is willing that the other should worship God according to the dictates of his own conscience.

Two other causes of war, both of which are operative in our times, are national misunderstandings and commercial rivalries; and all controversies growing out of national misunderstandings or commercial rivalries can be and ought to be settled by arbitration. Usually the two causes cooperate, and the one produces or intensifies the other. Two street urchins engaged in the sale of newspapers become, by a natural process of competition, claimants for the same block in a great city. After a brief period of diplomatic notes exchanged between these two powers in the form of mutual and clamorous assault and defense, they lay down their papers and engage in a battle of fists to settle the question to whom the block belongs. This, on a small scale, is boyish savagery. What is it on a large scale?

Commercial wars—that is, wars to collect debts, or settle questions of property interest, or determine by a contest of strength commercial rivalries which should be settled only by a contest of industrial enterprise and public service—cannot be justified upon any ethical principles. It is a general rule, to which there are few exceptions, that to sacrifice the lives of innocent persons to protect things is to sacrifice the more valuable for the less valuable. The occasional sacrifice of a policeman's life in a battle against burglars, or a militiaman's life against a mob, is not an exception, because in either case the life is sacrificed not merely, not mainly, to protect property, but to preserve law and order, and so protect society from threatened anarchy and disintegration. That commercial competition can be carried on by neighboring and competing nations in a spirit of generous rivalry which promotes their friendship, not their enmity, has been strikingly demonstrated upon this continent. For nearly a hundred years Canada

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and the United States have lived in direct geographical contact, and back of Canada has been the whole military and naval power of Great Britain. For years competing steamship lines have traversed the Atlantic seeking trade with Europe, competing railway lines have traversed the continent bidding against each other for the traffic, and competing steamship lines again have traversed the Pacific competing for the traffic of the East, and during this hundred years there has not been a war-ship on the lakes nor a fort on the frontier. Our peaceful relations have been maintained in a spirit of generous, though sometimes sharply contesting, rivalry, and it now looks as though this hundred years of peace would find a fitting celebration in the adoption of the Reciprocity Agreement between the two countries which will bind them in still closer relations of amity than ever before. Such a historic fact points the man of vision to the time when all nations will find in fellowship an advantage which they never found in hostile rivalry, and indicate to the man of vision the first steps to be taken to secure this beneficent result. It is only the man who walks with the back of his head toward the future and looks only to the past who cannot see this prospect of international peace.

No intelligent person supposes that arbitration is a panacea and will put an end to all war. Certainly The Outlook does not for a moment entertain any such notion. There have been in the past, and there may be in the future, questions which no nation could think of submitting to arbitration. The people of eastern Europe could not have submitted to arbitration the question whether the Christian nations should be subject to the Crescent. The people of the Netherlands could not have submitted to arbitration the question whether they should be subject to Philip II of Spain. The American Colonies could not have submitted to arbitration the question whether they should be dependencies of Great Britain. The United States could not submit to arbitration the question whether Hawaii or the Philippines or Porto Rico should pass from under their sovereignty and become subject to a foreign power. Mr. Roosevelt, in his article in The Outlook for May 20, pointed out several such international questions which this Nation would not, under any circumstances, consent to submit to arbitration. Upon this point The Outlook is in absolute agreement with the principle laid down by Mr. Roosevelt in that article.

International arbitration assumes that certain nations have reached such a stage of civilization that any questions which are likely to arise between them may be safely submitted to the judgment of an independent court in which other nations of an equal degree of civilization are represented.

President Taft has shown that combination of idealism and practical judgment which marks the true statesman in selecting Great Britain as the first nation with which to make such an all-inclusive treaty of peace. A hundred years of peace between these two Anglo-Saxon nations has proved that neither nation will propose what the other nation will not be willing to submit to a disinterested and impartial tribunal. When this treaty has been perfected and subscribed, we should like to see both nations proffer a treaty similar in terms to the other civilized nations. A treaty conceived in this spirit and entered into with Japan, a treaty which, following the suggestion of, we believe, Mr. Scott, at the recent Peace Congress in Baltimore, should provide in its preamble that both parties pledge themselves to respect each other's national honor, vital interests, internal administration, and territorial integrity, would do more to protect our Pacific coast and our insular possessions from the attack which Mr. Lea's feverish fancy has conjured up than could possibly be done by a standing army of four hundred thousand men maintained in idleness in time of peace.

Charles Sumner's definition of war has become a classic: "War is a public armed contest between nations, under the sanction of international law, to establish justice between them." The world has reached such a stage of moral development that those nations which desire to do justice to others, and wish for nothing but justice for themselves, can find a better means of ascertaining what is justice by judicial proceedings before an impartial tribunal than by a public armed contest. This is the doctrine of international arbitration stated in a sentence.

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THREE BOOKS OF VERSE

To be pessimistic about the present practice and future prospects of poetry has become so much a matter of habit, so automatic, that it is not easy to consider the verse of the hour with an open mind. The bodies of the critics are piled high around the cradle of almost every poetic reputation, to recall Mr. Huxley and the theologians. The well-worn reference to the damning of Keats has served long and well to point a moral, not because it was exceptional, but because the idea went abroad that the poet was murdered by the "Quarterly," an impression which enormously underrates the vitality of the author of "Hyperion," a piece of astonishing vigor and promise, and enormously overrates the destructive power of the "Quarterly." As a rule, correct verse of academic quality gets prompt recognition; its merits are so obvious, often so admirable, that a trained mind familiar with the standards promptly recognizes and generously applauds them. And verse at the other extreme, which startles and shocks, attracts immediate attention, and is either "viewed with alarm" or hailed as the song of a new age. The verse that often meets a disheartening silence is the sincere, genuine, promising work which lacks the academic precision but stirs with life either in imagination or phrase; or the verse which avoids violence of invective and betrays originality in clear conviction and compressed vigor of style; the verse, in a word, which is neither academic nor journalistic, but fresh, human, and alive. Of great poetry there is obvious lack, but so far as good, sound verse is concerned the situation is by no means so desperate as the professional alarmists would lead us to believe.

Mr. Robinson, for example, has published work of a very reassuring quality, and his latest book of verse, "The Town Down the River,"[1] will comfort those who have been led to expect that new poetry must be as polished and lifeless as the statue of the "Greek Slave," or as noisy, violent, and profane as a far Western barroom on a festive night. Mr. Robinson is quietly himself; he is neither a reactionary nor a rebel; he steers clear of the commonplace and escapes the strain of a deliberate and painful effort to be original. His quiet speech, his fresh perception, his penetration, are shown in these lines on Lincoln:

"For he, to whom we had applied
Our shopman's test of age and worth,
Was elemental when he died,
As he was ancient at his birth;
The saddest among kings of earth,
Bowed with a galling crown, this man
Met rancor with a cryptic mirth,
Laconic—and Olympian."

The poem which gives its title to this volume has that elusive quality of imagination which haunts all memorable things in life; a sense of mystery which does not impair the sense of reality, but conveys the parable without weakening the force of the fact; and the style is full of the strength of plain words and compressed experience. There are songs in this book which lack enchantment, but have the vibration of life.

Mrs. Van Rensselaer[1] had served her apprenticeship with prose and with life as well before she began to write verse, and the slender book to which she has committed her poems shows mature skill and mature experience as well. She has listened with her heart to Kreisler's violin, to the inarticulate cries of life, and to the rise and ebb of the tides in tree and flower; and her verse shows the faculty of shaping to the subtle movement of far-reaching thought and the directness of simple motion. She gives us the sense of the hidden flow of things in such lines as these on "Spring on Long Island:"

"It is there that the spring abides
The end of our winter tides.
It is thence she comes in the shining flood,
In a splendor of sunlight dressed,
The north in her heart, the south in her blood,
And her feet on the white wave crest,
So eagerly swift that we say she is near,
And the day beyond she is here, she is here."

If now and again, as in the "Ode to a Greek Head," Mrs. Van Rensselaer calls her skill too obviously to the aid of her genius, her work has the vital rather than the academic quality. It is not the product of delicate contrivance, but the expres-

[1] The Town Down the River. By Edwin Arlington Robinson. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York.

[1] Poems. By Mrs. Schuyler Van Rensselaer. The Macmillan Company, New York.

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sion of a real poetic impulse; and it knows the secrets of life as well as its magic of workmanship:

"Give back, said Love, give back my stars and flowers,
Yield me my roses, cease thy summer song;
Prepare thy heart for dark and rainful hours;
Take these thy thorns—for thou hast joyed too long.

"Give me thy thorns, I cried, thy stormy rains,
Take all the roses in thy garden grown;
Take the sweet stars, give me thy thorns of pain;
Give what thou wilt—if but it be thine own."

Men and women make their own memorials; and this was pre-eminently true of Miss Jewett, whose early death was the end of a very promising career as a teacher and as a writer. The Memorial Edition[1] of her poems, with its sympathetic biographical introduction, is not only a record of her industry and of her quiet, thoughtful life, but it continues her influence by its expression of a nature singularly pure and harmonious, and of a gift of song which, if it lacked range, had great sweetness and sincerity. If there were no name on the title-page of this collection, the reader would know that it came from a woman's hands. It is distinctly feminine verse, but that is not a limitation, it is a characterization. The volume is saturated with Miss Jewett's personality. It is the record of her moods and observations, of her wide and beautiful sympathy with the human world and the world of nature. Her poems are not musical exercises—dexterous fingerings of the keys—they are songs of feeling and conviction, of association with nature and of personal experience. Perhaps no happier example of subjective feeling answering the call of Nature and delicately describing it could be selected from the volume than these charming verses entitled "Vespers:"

"The robins call me sweet and shrill,
'Come out and fare afield;
The sun has neared the western hill,
The shadows slip down sure and still,
But in our meadow wide and wet
There's half an hour of sunshine yet;
Come down, come down!' Who would not yield?

"Across the road and through the lane,
Where buttercups grow tall and bright,
With daisies washed in last night's rain,—
Beyond the open bars I gain
An angle of the rude rail-fence,
A perfect coign of vantage, whence
Wheat-field and pastures stretch in sight.

"The cows, with stumbling tread and slow,
One after one come straggling by,
And many a yellow head falls low,
And many a daisy's scattered snow,
Where the unheeding footsteps pass,
Is crushed and blackened in the grass,
With brier and rue that trampled lie.

"Sweet sounds with sweeter blend and strive:
In its white prime of blossoming
Each wayside berry-bush, alive
With myriad bees, hums like a hive;
The frogs are loud in ditch and pool,
And songs unlearned of court or school
June's troubadours all round me sing.

"Somewhere beneath the meadow's veil
The peewee's brooding notes begin;
The sparrows chirp from rail to rail;
Above the bickering swallows sail,
Or skim the green half-tasseled wheat
With plaintive cry; and at my feet
A cricket tunes his mandolin.

"High-perched, a master-minstrel proud,
The red-winged blackbird pipes and calls,
One moment jubilant and loud,
The next, to sudden silence vowed,
Seeks cover in the marsh below;
Soft winds along the rushes blow,
And like a whisper twilight falls."

[1] The Poems of Sophie Jewett (Memorial Edition). T. Y. Crowell & Co., New York.

THE SPECTATOR

Let no one tell the Spectator that the way to escape the troubles of life is to flee to the country. He witnessed and shared some harrowing experiences in and about his old white house last summer. It is hardly to be expected that the reader's memory will retain the story of a phœbe-bird which the Spectator told him two or three years ago. But the old white house has retained the friendly feathered little fact on which the story was based; and the Spectator's life has been knit closely with the bright-eyed sharer of his piazza peace.

Wonderful how one comes to cherish a little companion like this! The Spectator has learned to think of his home as being quite equally the home of the phœbe-

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bird. When his thoughts have turned to it in the spring, he has wondered if her thoughts were turning too, if she were packing her trunk; and when he has re-entered the gate, he has gone straight to the piazza to see in what stage of construction the nest was on its pillar. That it would be there in some stage or other he has never doubted; nor has his housekeeper, since one notable test she made of phœbic resolution. Not being by nature a lover of phœbes (what housekeeper is?), the excellent woman had taken occasion one autumn to leave a block of marble on the top of the pillar. "Thank you," the phœbe's eyes said the next May, peering over the edge of her nest, so squeezed in between the block and the roof that her head nearly touched the latter as she sat upon her eggs. "I don't know but it *is* safer for me to be a little farther away from your cat; and certainly I am proud to build on such a handsome foundation." The Spectator's housekeeper has a large nature; and, instead of resenting the fact that she had been outwitted by a phœbe, she yielded the tribute of her esteem, and by and by of her affection. When, in the autumn of that year, she found that the block of marble had been mortised into the corner so that it formed practically a part of the house, her admiration carried her over completely to the phœbe's cause.

Spring came early the next year, and the nest was completed when the Spectator returned to his country home. Two little brown figures were flitting busily back and forth, giving impalpable finishing touches and pausing to study the effect, with their heads on one side. Two little figures? Yes, the Spectator fears that he has done scant justice to Mr. Phœbe in his remarks heretofore. The truth is that the two factors in this ideal marriage looked so much alike that the Spectator could never tell one of them from the other; and unless they were both present before him he merged them in his conception. He need not apologize; Mr. Phœbe would appreciate the tribute.

But it seems to the Spectator that the two figures were together on the piazza rather more often than usual last summer. He hopes that it was so. The eggs were hatched, and the four babies grew into the palpitating mass of feathers and large heads which always looks so uncomfortable on warm afternoons. The father and mother flew back and forth, ceaselessly carrying flies; the Spectator watched from his book below; the housekeeper glanced from the open door; all was peace and prosperity, when— Alas! the Spectator, when he remembers what followed, almost wishes that he had not begun this story.

He came home from a walk one day, glanced carelessly down at the lawn, and saw—a dead bird. A sad sight always. He stooped to lift the limp little form, and is not ashamed to confess that his heart stood still, for he held a phœbe. Not his phœbe, though? Oh! that could not be! He thrust the fear from him, and hurried to call his housekeeper. "Mrs. Thompson, come here! See what I have found! There are lots of phœbes in the barn, aren't there? This must be one of them." "Sakes! Yes, Mr. Spectator, lots. Oh, dear me! dear, dear me! Oh, sakes alive! Yes, phœbes in the barn." Whereupon, breathless, with one accord, the Spectator and the housekeeper abandoned all their occupations for the time being and gave themselves over to watching the piazza to see whether more than one bird flew in and out of the nesting-place, carrying provisions.

It was a harrowing afternoon. How many false hopes in the shape of bluebirds and sparrows flew over the lawn, causing the Spectator's heart to leap and then to fall lower than ever! How many poignant appeals were sent forth by the bereft bird, toiling hard, but pausing now and then to perch on a twig and call and call! Long before sunset there was no doubt that the dead bird was one of the piazza pair; and when night fell and no little form settled itself to brood on the edge of the nest, the sex of the stricken life was manifest. Soberly the Spectator went for his garden trowel and dug a grave at the foot of the pillar; and while

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he buried his comrade of many summers, the housekeeper wept aloud.

Well, what next? The Spectator had had to remove his glasses; but he put them on again to meet the housekeeper's confronting gaze. Were they two going to be equal to bringing up that family? In fancy he saw himself dashing madly about the orchard with a butterfly net and a bottle for flies, while the housekeeper sat aloft on a step-ladder and administered the booty. It would be an all-day-long task for them both, but doubtless they could do it. It never occurred to them (and here the Spectator's apology is profound) that Mr. Phœbe would not desert his motherless brood as soon as he found himself definitely alone.

The Spectator woke the next morning with the unexpected touch of Walt Whitman on his drowsy thoughts. That was strange. He had not yet opened "Leaves of Grass" this summer. A bird was singing outside his window. "Phœbe! Phœbe! Phœ-œ-be!" Ah! He made the connection. That heartbreaking, unendurably beautiful poem, "Out of the cradle endlessly rocking," was surging into his consciousness; and the voice that summoned it was the voice of the widowed phœbe out on the lawn, calling his dead mate. "Old fellow, don't! For heaven's sake!" The Spectator thrust his head out of the window. "Let up. Have mercy. It's no use. I'm sorry, but you might as well know the truth at once: you can't get her back. Oh, say, won't you stop?"

He hurried on his clothes and went down to see what was the state of affairs on the piazza pillar. The little birds were all alive and awake; and, far from deserting them, their father was gallantly setting himself to deal with a problem which to the Spectator's mind seemed well-nigh overwhelming. How he worked! Back and forth, in and out, he flew, culling flies from mid-air, his feathers all ruffled with worry and haste and his tail twitching desperately. That which yesterday had absorbed the attention of himself and his mate, working together, now devolved upon him alone; and he did his brave little best to meet the serious issues.

A comrade in distress has always seemed to the Spectator an obvious signal for active exertion; and he tried to help the phœbe, but he did not know how. To save his life he could not catch more than one bug to every fifteen of the swooping bird. (There's a good deal, by the way, in that essay in which Montaigne so charmingly argues the superiority of the so-called brute creation over the human.) Nor was the housekeeper more successful in her services. She and the Spectator were reduced to helpless observation and comment. "Oh, say, old fellow, I guess I wouldn't!" the Spectator remonstrated feebly when he saw the father about to present to one of his babies a large, uncarved butterfly—in proportion as if a human infant should be required to swallow an ostrich egg. And, "It's all wrong," murmured the housekeeper, severely laying the blame of the crisis on the general scheme of things. "Nature should provide against cases like this. There ought to be some maiden phœbes waiting around, or at least a widow or two."

The Spectator more nearly than ever repents him of having begun to tell this story when he faces the problem of ending it. Shall he tell the truth, or shall he devise some comforting fiction? The truth is bitter. It involves the fact that the flower-bed at the foot of the pillar has become a family burying-ground, and that there seems no reasonable hope that a phœbe-bird's nest will ever cheer the piazza again. There was something lacking in the feathered father's devoted care, some maternal necessity which— But surely the whole need not be told. The widowed bird still lives. The Spectator hears him now and then calling about the house, "Phœbe! Phœbe!" so sweet and plaintive, alas! so lonely! All the other birds fly in pairs, but the phœbe perches alone. What can be done for him? Nothing. The Spectator is a firm believer in faithfulness. But he sometimes wishes that Walt Whitman had not written that poem.

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STAMPING OUT THE PLAGUE IN CHINA

BY JAMES WHITFIELD BASHFORD

BISHOP OF THE METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH

A few weeks ago the danger to China and to the entire East from plague was alarming in the extreme. The victims were counted by thousands. The spread of the dreadful disease was astonishingly rapid. Now the plague has been quite, or nearly, stamped out. Bishop Bashford, writing from Peking, gives below the first authoritative account we have seen of the way the battle was won. The story shows what China owes to missionary effort, medical instruction, and the advance of intelligence among the Chinese.—THE EDITORS.

THE stamping out of the pneumonic plague in North China is due to three causes: the Chinese Government, Chinese physicians trained in modern methods, and missionary physicians. The physicians in charge last week [Bishop Bashford is writing from Peking under date of April 24] officially declared plague to be absent from Chili and Shantung; and, unless a cablegram retracting this statement reaches you before this letter, Manchuria also will be officially declared free from plague before you read these lines.

Dr. Fasenske, of Russia, in his paper before a conference of doctors, admits that the plague originated in Siberia among the hunters of the marmot, from which animal the hunters probably received the plague bacilli. On the attack of the plague the hunters immediately scattered to their homes; and, as many of them were Chinese, the plague was thus brought into Manchuria. Through the neglect of measures for isolation of the victims and the "suspects," it gained rapid headway and made terrible ravages. The correspondent of the Associated Press in Harbin, who is careful in his estimates, places the total number of deaths at sixty-five thousand, while others make the number of victims much larger.

Two policies of dealing with the plague at once developed, one conservative, the other progressive. Physicians who had been in China for a quarter of a century and who were familiar with the Government under the old régime were heartsick over the prospect that the plague would be regarded by the officials with indifference, and would thus ravage China, flow back upon Russia, and possibly spread to all Europe. Indeed, at first the old attitude of the Chinese Government prevailed—an attitude of opposition to foreigners generally, and to Japanese and Russians in particular. The pest spread rapidly. Affairs soon reached such a stage that the missionary physicians and the young Chinese physicians trained under them, who had hastened to the front to assist in this crisis, were at one time disposed to resign in a body.

Fortunately, there are to-day in Peking nearly one hundred young Chinese who have been trained in America or Europe. These men knew that the failure of China to act in a crisis which threatened the health of the Empire, and possibly of the world, would furnish the best possible occasion for additional and permanent measures of aggression in Manchuria upon the part of Japan and Russia. They succeeded in reaching the Prince Regent and placing the situation fairly before him. The Prince Regent decided promptly in favor of the progressive party. Meantime, a dramatic incident in Harbin helped change the attitude of the Chinese officials in Manchuria. Perhaps, indeed, it will be more just to say that the officials in Manchuria thus far had failed simply because they did not know how to meet the crisis and because they distrusted foreigners. That these officials were disposed to do something is shown by the fact that they had sixteen hundred persons in Harbin suffering from the plague placed in a Chinese hospital for treatment. Here the old-time physicians treated them by puncturing the skin with needles. The virulence of the plague was so great and the futility of the old methods so complete that not a single patient came out of the hospital alive. The head Chinese physician at last came out and, delivering up his needle, confessed that he and his school were powerless to deal with the disease. This frank admission on the part of the leader of the old school of Chinese physicians, the assurance by young Chinese

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physicians trained by missionaries or else by medical schools in Europe or America that even if the stricken could not be cured the plague could be hedged about and stamped out, the confidence which the missionary physicians had inspired by years of devotion and their heroism in volunteering for this dangerous service, and, above all, the attitude of the Prince Regent, led to a determination upon the part of the Chinese officials in Manchuria to adopt Western methods of dealing with the plague. Dr. Wu Lin Teh, a graduate of Cambridge, England, trained also in the best medical schools of Paris and Berlin, and already holding the confidence of higher Chinese officials, became the leader of the progressive party. The physicians who had gone from North China to Manchuria, instead of displaying the pride of foreigners, showed the devotion of missionaries and gladly accepted the leadership of Dr. Wu; the young Chinese physicians heroically served under their Chinese leader; and perhaps no better work has been done by the medical profession in recent years than was accomplished by this body of men in diagnosing the causes of the plague and successfully stamping it out at the imminent risk of their lives. Indeed, several of them—Dr. Jackson, of the United Free Scotch Mission in Mukden; Dr. Mesney, I think a member of the Roman Catholic Church, employed by the Chinese Government in Tientsin College for training army and navy surgeons; Drs. Pi and Chen, of the Methodist Episcopal Church and of the Union Medical College; and one woman Russian physician—sacrificed their lives upon the altar of humanity. The appreciation of the Chinese is shown by the fact that the families of the foreigners were promptly given 10,000 taels each and the families of the Chinese 1,000 taels each as a slight expression of the gratitude of the Government for their heroic sacrifice; and the devotion of Dr. Jackson's mother is shown by the fact that she promptly turned over this money to the United Free Church Hospital in Mukden, which annually treats thousands of Chinese patients.

The attitude of the Japanese and the Russians was shown by the fact that the Japanese were exceedingly efficient in dealing with cases of the plague which came under their supervision along the railway lines, and the Russians were second only to the Japanese in dealing with cases along their lines. Indeed, the Russians furnished the newest and perhaps the best style of improvised hospital in scores of box cars which were run along the roads to the most convenient side-tracks in the cities of Manchuria, and especially in Harbin, and used for the sick and for detention homes for the "suspects."

The thoroughness, the promptness after the initial decision was reached, and the ability of the Chinese Government in dealing with the plague were a great surprise to those who have been long in the Empire, and these facts are not yet fully known in Europe and America. From the day that the Government in Peking determined upon the reform policy, representatives of the Foreign Office were in constant communication with the Union Medical Faculty [the medical school of the associated medical missions in Peking], and every suggestion of the missionaries was promptly acted upon. The Government did not hesitate to burn down infected houses and assume the responsibility of paying for them; it did not hesitate to subject the people to a thorough examination by the physicians in order to discover all cases of infection; it did not permit the burial of dead bodies without a medical inspection; contrary to immemorial custom, it burned the bodies of the dead; it promptly threw cordons of police or soldiers around infected houses, villages, and infected districts in cities, and thus isolated the plague and enabled the physicians to stamp it out.

A good illustration of the thoroughness of the Government and of the success attending such thoroughness was found in Peking. Providentially, the very first case in the city was discovered in the Union Medical Hospital; this hospital, therefore, was used in this case and placed at the disposal of the city, as was also the Methodist Hospital. But as the physicians, even with the aid of hospitals, were powerless to cope with the disease when it once developed, it seemed better to isolate and treat the cases wherever found. Peking was at once divided into sections, each with a foreign trained physician in charge and two or more Chinese assistants under him. These men worked together sys-

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tematically and harmoniously, reporting all deaths occurring within their districts to a board of five physicians, who constantly took charge of all suspected cases, saw to the disinfection of all houses where plague had broken out, and exercised general supervision of hundreds of coolies who were put to work clearing the streets and using disinfectants. Indeed, Peking, even (at the close of the Boxer uprising) under foreign governments, was not so thoroughly cleaned up and disinfected as is the city to-day. In every case where a victim of the plague was discovered Chinese guards were thrown around this place and maintained day and night. In one case a man suspected of having the disease climbed over a wall at night and escaped. His escape filled the physicians with anxiety, and the whole city was scoured in the vain attempt to find this "suspect." A few days later a man appeared in one of the coffin shops in Peking to purchase a coffin for a stranger. As no man was allowed to sell a coffin without reporting the case, this application for a coffin was reported and the purchaser was accompanied by the police back to a village near Tungchow, fifteen miles from Peking, where the corpse was recognized as that of the "suspect" who had escaped. Immediately a cordon of police was placed around this village and nobody allowed to enter or escape until the plague had fully disappeared. Unfortunately, two or three of the villagers lost their lives through the coming of this stranger to their homes. This thoroughness of the physicians in dealing with the plague in Peking confined the fatality to some ten or twelve cases in all.

The spirit of the Government in dealing with the plague is shown by its daily consultation with foreign physicians and the heed paid to their advice, by willingness to place foreign-trained physicians in charge of Chinese people, and to spend some three-quarters of a million taels in stamping out the plague, and by promptness in calling, at Government expense, an important conference of physicians fresh from their struggle with the plague and of medical representatives of foreign Governments to discover, if possible, the cause of the plague and the best means of dealing with any future outbreaks. It is clear to all that, severe as the plague has been, it will prove a blessing in disguise through furnishing to the whole nation a demonstration of the ability of foreign-trained physicians at least to isolate and trample out a disease thus far regarded as invincible, through the enlargement of the world's knowledge of plague in general, and of the pneumonic plague in particular, and through the marked appreciation by the Chinese of the work which missionaries are accomplishing in the Empire.

THE FARMER-MINISTER

BY A FARMER'S WIFE

ONCE upon a time there were in these New Jersey hills real ministers. They were not merely preachers. Their association with the farmers was an every-day matter. My father has a bill made out for a minister by his grandfather, and it is interesting to note how much mutton the minister's family was able to consume, and how much rum! The pitcher of rum sat boldly on the preacher's desk in those days. The family still cherishes the tradition of a minister famous with scythe and cradle. A minister who was mowed out of his swath could not compel many men to listen to him in meeting. Every boy and girl in the community asked the minister's advice on books and study and going away from home. Disputes were brought to him, and his word often ended bad quarrels.

To-day, nobody speaks of the minister in our village. He knows nothing of the vital affairs of the people and cannot understand their work. He belongs in the best room or in the meeting-house. Yet we had with us once a young man, not

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graduated from the theological seminary, who won the people's hearts almost like the minister of older times. He played the violin as I have rarely heard it played, and he would sit on a sofa with a roomful of all ages of farm folk gathered around him, playing the old, old tunes, ballads, war songs, and jigs. He knew nothing of country living, and would follow a farmer's wife into the buttery or cool-room with all the happy feeling at discovery of new things that a city child might know. Because he found pleasure in unaccustomed things, the daily getting of food, the work in the fields, the animals in the barn, because he gave pleasure with his fiddle and received pleasure in return, he was shown a more graceful side of the gruff farmers than they show to most people nowadays. He did not stay, and because of his youth and inexperience he turned his back on several who uncovered the unlovely things of life to him. He could not know, as I do, why these people harbor unlovely things in their lives. He could not know how long they have lived without the beauty that their grandfathers gained from a few good books, daily Bible readings, and a truly religious life.

In a very few farm-houses we still find some of the old spirit. The head of the house speaks with the precision and clear language of his fathers, who were influenced by their acquaintance with the Bible; he says grace before meat in a mood of genuine thankfulness; his children look up to him as to a patriarch of old. In such a house we feel keenly the lack of religious force in our lives. We can live truly, can see truth and teach it to our children, we can do right and shun wrong, and can grow within ourselves a stronger moral sense than those who lean upon their religion. But there is in formality, in the sincere following of religious forms, an external beauty of much power in bringing people into touch with one another. It is a kind of moral loneliness in the lives of farmers and of independent thinkers elsewhere that makes a great emptiness where religious observances once were. To the man who knows "the touch of elbows" in the city this emptiness is not apparent. To the farmer who lives with his animals, who can lean on the pasture gate a long time waiting for the unhurried cows to take the last mouthfuls of grass, who knows the hills, the elements of life about him as part of the greater life, the wholeness of nature makes up to him what his fathers once found in their religion. But his children? One has only to go into the old families I know here in this community to learn that the fine, thoughtful, even magnificent old spirits are not handed down to the younger generation. The children are taught to look to others besides their parents for their education; they do not spend long hours in the open with a patiently moving father as they did once. Machinery instead of the sociable scythes and hand-rakes; more time inside the school-house; specialization in farm crops, resulting in rush work on a few, in which there is no place for children and their help; modern tendencies in thought and sophisticated life—all have weaned the children away from the old-time farmer and the influences that made him what he was.

The need of a minister to-day is greater than it ever was before. Morally the farmers here are no worse than, nor as low as, men of similar responsibilities in cities. Even the gross social lapses sometimes seen have their counterparts in town, with half the excuse. The farmers' children need, more than anything else, a sane adviser who can show them how to steer between the knowledge and skepticism of modern education, how to reconcile modern thought and the eternal truths about them, how to find the divine beauty in each thing that exists, how to make beauty where they cannot find it. My philosophy will sound epicurean to church people, but the sincere clergyman knows that the hold which religion once had over the men of these hills was the fact that it represented to them enduring beauty, the highest, finest, truest, most lovable and awe-inspiring beauty that men's minds had ever known. To make the children of these hills look upon the grass and creatures as the highest manifestation of power and of beauty, to pattern their lives accordingly, to reach out for all that is great in modern civilization and to discard all that is mean, is the minister's work, and it can be done only by the man who can *grow* things, who knows every homely detail of the people's lives—by the farmer-clergyman.

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THE READER, THE REPORTER, AND THE NEWS

BY SHEPARD ASHMAN MORGAN

IN the editorial rooms of a New York newspaper which makes no effort to conceal its yellow complexion are signboards bearing legends to this effect: "Tell the truth. Don't warp it or disguise it. Any reporter who fails in this respect is not wanted here, and will be expected to go elsewhere." And yet this journal is held throughout the newspaper profession to be the most flagrant trespasser against truth. It seems to disregard it utterly, and appears to do it as much from principle as from habit.

Readers are apt to reason from instances of this sort that newspapers can no longer be taken at their face value, and that newspaper writers make things appear as outrageous as their imaginations are capable of suggesting. Over some one's shoulder in the subway you read page-wide headlines telling of what purports to be a disaster, and, from your personal knowledge it may be, you are sure that it was a petty accident. The inference is plain: newspapers delight in telling untruths; it helps to sell them.

Doubtless in the last clause of the deduction so casual an observer comes near stating what is so. It is a fact recognized among newspaper writers, and many of them are sorry for it. Sensationalism does sell papers. Publishers are apt to give the public what it wants. If the bulk of the people want to be shocked, certain publishers will see to it that the shocks are administered, and will go as far as the shadowy limits of decency and the libel laws allow.

The point is easily illustrated. Some time ago a party of newspaper men gathered at a round-up of counterfeiters somewhere in the hill country of New York State. In the course of the attack upon the illicit mint one of the counterfeiters was shot. He died some hours later in a remote hospital, and nothing reached the newspaper writers except the bare statement of his death. They had no time to make inquiries, and yet his mishap was clearly one of the features of the story. It occurred to one of the reporters that the man might have said something to a nurse or a doctor before he died, perhaps in the nature of a confession. So he wrote the confession himself.

"My paper wants that kind of stuff," he said afterward, "and if I didn't write it they would wire me for it. So I'll write one now and save them the trouble."

If he had gone a step further in his reasoning, he would have said that the readers of his paper wanted the story of the confession, and not the newspaper itself. The readers are the buyers, and it may be that more people would buy the paper on that day and the next because of his addition of graphic details. The newspaper business is subject to the same economic law which prevails in other fields of competitive industry: the consumer is the final dictator of what he buys.

But it cannot be said that the body of American newspaper readers want gross exaggeration or misconstruction or suppression of news. Some of them do, clearly. But there are others who want accuracy and completeness, and the American journalistic field is wide enough to meet all the varying degrees of truth or sensationalism which the readers demand.

It is scarcely to be supposed, however, that these are the only factors which govern circulation, or, in other words, appeal to the reading public. Editorials win and lose subscribers. The pages having to do with sports or the stock market, the cartoons and illustrations, and nowadays even the comic pictures, win and lose readers. Nevertheless, it is general news that is the chief business of a newspaper, and it is the nature of this which determines its standing.

A reporter, when he undertakes to write a story, has more or less vividly in mind the personality of his paper, a character which is more enduring and quite as individual as that of any of the men who have to do with the making of it, and persists from year to year in spite of constantly changing staffs of writers. It is to be

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supposed that this personality is acceptable to the bulk of the readers; otherwise they would not buy the paper.

Thus, a reporter, when he sits down at his typewriter, is intent upon writing his story in such a way that it will suit the character of his paper, and thereby appeal to the body of its readers. He will attempt to bring out the features of the story which, in his opinion, are what the paper is used to and what the readers want. If the paper prefers shrieks, he can supply them; or sobs, or brightness, or plain commonplace details.

A few weeks ago an unidentified boy was run down and killed by a surface car on Lexington Avenue in Harlem. All the newspapers in New York knew of the accident a few minutes after it happened, and the skeleton of the story was sent over the telephone by the district reporters to be rewritten in the offices. There was nothing unusual about the little tragedy; nobody came to tell who the lad was, and there was nothing to relieve the unpleasantness of it.

This is approximately the way the episode was treated in a paper which has a wide popular following:

> In sight of scores of homeward-bound working-girls, a little boy was killed last night by a Lexington Avenue surface car near East One Hundred and Twenty-first Street. He had started to cross the avenue, and in avoiding a south-bound car ran directly into the path of one north bound.
>
> As he went under the car the little fellow screamed, and the girls on the sidewalks blended their shrieks with his cries for help. The motorman, with blanched face, brought the car to a standstill quickly, but the lad was wedged under the forward truck, dead.
>
> A huge crowd surrounded the car at once and tried in vain to lift it, but—

And so on. The familiar phrases of hysterical writing are here—the "blanched face" of the motorman; the screams, the shrieks and cries; the car is "brought to a standstill;" and a "huge crowd" gathers. It is to be observed, too, that the witnesses are "working-girls," and there are "scores" of them. A little farther on a policeman is pictured running to the help of the motorman and conductor to save them from being mobbed. All these are the usual pigments with which the yellow story is painted. Clearly the dullest sensibilities cannot avoid being impressed.

The story as it appeared in a second newspaper was written with more deftness. It was aimed at a body of readers somewhat larger than that addressed by the reporter on the first newspaper, but who seem to prefer a somewhat gentler method of attack. The story ran about as follows:

> A dead boy lay pinned under the wheels of a Lexington Avenue car at One Hundred and Twenty-first Street for half an hour last night while women, forgetting the rain, snow, and mud, leaned far under and tried to soothe the little fellow, who they believed still to be alive. A doctor came from Harlem Hospital. He crawled under the car, felt the lad's pulse, came out and said, "He's dead, I can do nothing."

This writer proceeds to explain the accident by saying, not that the boy was struck by one car when he was dodging another, but that "the wind was blowing a gale when the boy started across the avenue, and apparently he did not hear the clanging of the gong." The working-girls appear as women, and instead of "shrieking" they try "to soothe the little fellow." One is apt to believe that the latter story more accurately reflects what happened than did the other. It is more sentimental, to be sure, and it is written to fit the purposes of the paper which is looking always for the "human interest story," and which expects that its reporters will pick out for emphasis the "human interest features." It is worth noting that the men who selected the striking elements of the stories to serve in the headlines chose the shrieking girls and the kneeling women. How much foundation in fact these features had is doubtful. At any rate, in each instance the writers of the stories, in a whole field of possibilities, hit upon them as being the most pleasing to their readers. Therefore they put them in.

In two other New York papers, which appeal to somewhat different audiences, the incident was not mentioned at all. The essential fact of the accident was not enough to carry the story, as the Park Row phrase is, in the face of more important news. It may be that the narrative was written in each office, but it either failed to pass the copy-reader or it was crowded out in the composing-room. Neither of these papers is of a complexion

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to favor an item the news value of which is so doubtful, nor is either apt to depend upon external stimulus, as it were, to create news value artificially. The accident itself was not unusual. There are many incidents similar in character, if not in details, in every week's grist of happenings.

In case the accident had occurred on a Sunday night, when news is slack, or on some evening when the city or the country had failed to yield the usual crop of entertaining or worth-while stories, one of these two newspapers might have printed the item in about this form:

An unidentified boy, supposed to have been about ten years old, was run over at 6:30 o'clock last night by a Lexington Avenue car at One Hundred and Twenty-first Street, and was killed, owing to the inability of the motorman, Frederick Geist, of 952 East Seventh Street, to stop his car. Policeman Downey, of the East One Hundred and Twenty-sixth Street police station, sent in a hurry call for an ambulance to Harlem Hospital, but the boy was dead before the doctor arrived. His body was removed to the East One Hundred and Twenty-Sixth Street police station.

The essential facts are presented here without compromise or embellishment. There are no shrieks nor appeals to sentimentality. It is merely a plain statement of what happened, told in a form about as graceful as the entry in a station-house blotter. If newspapers are merely daily chronicles, and readers want simple statements of the incidents in a day's history and nothing more, then the writer of paragraphs like this does his duty.

A different conception is shown by a writer on another newspaper, who, if he had written the story at all, would have told it in about this fashion:

A little boy, trying to get across Lexington Avenue at dusk last night in the face of a heavy wind, was run down by a surface car at One Hundred and Twenty-first Street. The motorman did what he could to help him, but by the time a surgeon got there from Harlem Hospital the boy was dead. Nobody there seemed to know his name, nor did any one go to the East One Hundred and Twenty-sixth Street station to tell the police who he was.

The attitude of this reporter is plainly different from that of the writer of the other paragraph. He has omitted the names of the policeman and motorman because they played no important parts in the incident. He has studiously, possibly too studiously, avoided the common phrases in police reports, and he has jumped over the commonplace action. He does not say that the policeman "sent in a hurry call for an ambulance," nor does he speak of the boy as "unidentified." The ambulance doctor "got there," and no one went to the station-house to "tell who he was."

Stories printed in the same two newspapers this last winter illustrate the same difference of method. A boy tumbled into the manhole of a sewer one snowy afternoon, and was taken out alive an hour and a quarter later, some distance from where he fell in.

This is about the way the reporter of the first of the two newspapers started his story:

Edward Burrell, four and a half years old, was toddling behind his mother yesterday afternoon, trying to keep his baby brother, who hung cooing over his mother's shoulder, good-natured. This was at Eighty-sixth Street and East End Avenue, and the time was 1:55 o'clock P.M. As they crossed from the east side of the street to go to the west to their home, which is at 320 East Ninetieth Street, they passed near an open manhole of a sewer, into which Stephen Gray, a street-sweeper, was shoveling snow and slush. A snow-bank hid the manhole from view. Gray was a dozen yards away, with his back turned, very busy with his work.

Suddenly the baby stopped cooing. Mrs. Burrell turned around to speak to Edward, but he was not there. She saw the open manhole and screamed. A yard or two in advance was her sister with another child.

"Eddie's in the sewer!" shouted Mrs. Burrell. "I think he fell into that hole."

She ran to where Gray was still methodically sweeping the street, and hysterically told him her fears. Gray was not convinced.

And so on. In the other newspaper the same set of facts, as scrupulously adhered to, were treated in a different fashion. This is about how the reporter began his story:

When the doctor patted Eddie Burrell on the wet curls and said, "Now, sonny, I guess we'll have you all right again soon," Eddie opened his eyes for just an instant and then resolutely closed them tight. For Eddie believed that dead people's eyes are shut, and he knew that he was dead.

How near to death he really was this four-year-old youngster will probably be told when he grows up. He was for four hours and fifteen minutes yesterday afternoon in the black vault of the sewer under East Eighty-sixth Street, with the freezing water lapping his chin and with the river mouth of the sewer less than a block away from him.

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Policemen who searched the cavern did not hope to find him alive. Yet they found Eddie living and with his face turned toward the light.

The stories proceed in about the same key as that indicated by the opening paragraphs. It is clear that the two keys are quite unlike, and it is not to be said here that one is better suited to newspaper writing than is the other. What is perfectly apparent, however, is that the readers of these two newspapers have utterly different tastes in the way they like to have the day's news presented to them. The reporter, no matter to what paper he is attached, learns with a certain degree of swiftness what these likes are, and he naturally does his best to gratify them, often with the unsolicited help of the man who reads his copy.

"I want the news to come shrieking into this office," said a city editor of a New York newspaper like that from which the first of the four examples given above was taken. Clearly his reporters and copy-readers send it out the same way. This paper is a successful journal. It is making money for its owner. There are many advertisers. These come chiefly, it may be said, because there are some hundreds of thousands of persons in New York who like to read of shrieks.

But there appear to be about twice as many who like the "human interest" story. Judging by circulations, there are more readers who like "human interest" stories than any other sort of stories.

The straightforward paper with all the news in all its details has a following, too. Its readers do not insist upon the most graceful manner of narration, and its stories are sometimes open to the charge of being wooden. But it respects the decencies, is sentimental only once in a while, and then in a manner which shows that its sentiment is not habitual, and it tells the day's history.

The fourth newspaper appeals to a somewhat more restricted audience. Its reporters are brought up in a school in which they are taught that newspaper stories can be at once accurate and pleasing to an educated reader. The founder of this school saw that there is enough in the record of a day to furnish the substance for a library of novels, and he could see no real reason why news, merely because it is news, should be treated in a manner foreign to the laws of permanent literary expression. So it is that the men who prepare the news on this paper have got into the habit of training their stories at a point a shade above the commonplace.

Readers are the arbiters of the sort of news that the papers print, and, in a large measure, of the way they print it. What is a shriek in one paper becomes a sob in another, is quite left out, or is put in by implication. The man fingering his copper at a news-stand picks what he wants, and, if there are enough others like him, he can do what he pleases with the writers.

THE PRAYER OF THE TIMID SOUL

BY HARRIET BALL THORPE

How shall I utter, Lord, who cannot bear
The fretful shallows of my life, a prayer
For those far ocean depths, so dark and still,
Of the eternal Will?

How can I hope, who stifle in the air
Of this warm earth, better to breathe the rare
Cold ether of that solemn, shining height
Where God himself gives light?

Yet, though my trembling spirit fears, it knows
Itself, in truth, of that great tide which flows
From thee. O fill, then, with thy heavenly grace
Even my shallow place.

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IS CONTEMPORARY GERMANY PRODUCING GREAT ART?

BY KUNO FRANCKE

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THIS question, Is contemporary Germany producing great art? might perhaps be preceded by another question, more easily answered, Are the conditions of contemporary German life such that an era of great national art may be expected? It certainly seems that they are.

For more than a generation Germany has been steadily pressing on toward leadership in almost every field of national activity and private enterprise. It is unnecessary to recount the triumphs won by Germany during the last fifty years in diplomatic and military strategy, in empire-building, in social legislation, in commercial expansion, in industrial organization, in science, in education, in the heightening of national efficiency both for peace and war. And it is unnecessary to add that in the arts also there has been displayed during the same time an astounding amount of restless activity and eager vitality. No well-informed person will deny that dramatic art is being more systematically cultivated in modern Germany and has acquired a larger popular influence than in any other country. No intelligent observer will close his eyes to the fact that the German architecture of to-day is more original, more energetic, more inventive than the architecture of any other European nation. No unbiased critic will fail to recognize in German music, in German literature, in German painting and sculpture to-day an irresistible impulse, a bold defiance of conventionality, a sincere striving for fresh impressions, an instinctive reaching out for the heights and the depths of life. In other words, for decades German art has been hovering on the very verge of greatness, has been gathering strength for the supreme and decisive test.

Why, then, with all this ceaseless striving and all this aggressive talent, why is it that, after all, so few truly great works of art have been produced by contemporary Germany, so few works which reveal the simplicity of genius, so few which silence all opposition and harmonize all conflicting emotions?

Some of the reasons are undoubtedly identical with those which account for the comparative scarceness of great art in any of the modern nations. Ours is a prevailingly inartistic age. It is an age of observation rather than imagination, of action rather than contemplation; its greatest achievements have been reached by scientific discovery and industrial enterprise. This prevailingly aggressive character of the age has given to the contemporary art of all nations a certain willful combativeness and fantastic restlessness incompatible with pure beauty. In the art of no other nation, however, has it produced as turbulent and chaotic conditions as in that of Germany.

The reason for this seems to be that no other nation has undergone during the last generation as rapid and as radical changes as Germany. Fifty years ago German political influence in Europe was a negligible quantity; to-day it is paramount. Fifty years ago agriculture was the basis of German national wealth; to-day it largely rests upon the great industrial centers. Fifty years ago German scholarship was pre-eminently theoretical; to-day it is dominated by the zeal for practical achievements. Germany is the most modern of all nations to-day; the desire to be progressive, to be up to date, pervades the whole country. It is this condition of things, this irrepressible onward moving of national activity, with which German art is, so to speak, trying to catch up.

The result has been that German art to-day is consumed by the craving for originality, by the quest for new forms, and by the effort to remove all obstacles to the expression of personality. The more the German is ready to submit to discipline in matters of State and social organization, the more fully is he convinced that art should be entirely free and untrammeled, and the more is he prone

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to believe that any kind of untrammeled expression of personality is in itself artistic.

Hence the extraordinary hold which the ecstatic ravings of Nietzsche about a life raised above the common conceptions of good and evil have taken on the national imagination. Hence the frenzied enthusiasm with which the bewildering, maddening, crushing effects of Strauss's "Salome" and "Elektra" were received. Hence the unconcern and freedom with which young German ladies will discuss the artificial and strained nudities of a picture exhibition of the Munich *Sezession* or *Scholle*, or the daring dramatic vulgarities by Ludwig Thoma or Frank Wedekind. Hence the unspeakable frivolity and lewdness of society satire, added to extraordinary cleverness, in such comic papers as the "Simplizissimus." Hence the forced primitiveness of Franz von Stuck's fabulous classico-romantic imaginings; the labored symbolism of Max Klinger's heroic impersonations of thought; the crudely fantastic color contrasts of Erler; the archaic rigidity and defiant uncouthness of Sascha-Schneider. Everywhere the same desire to depart from the beaten path, everywhere the strident note of individuality, everywhere the same overreaching self-assertion, everywhere the failure to be great through the very effort at greatness, the failure to grasp the essence of life through the very overflow of vitality.

This paradoxical situation cannot last. Either this overflowing vitality will waste itself in riotous excesses, or it will be controlled, disciplined, purified, and thereby strengthened, so as to become of force for true greatness. Fortunately, there are indications that this latter alternative is the direction in which German art is moving.

In architecture something seems to be developing which may indeed be called a new national style, containing elements, at least, of genuine greatness. It is not a mere repetition of historical forms, not a mere copy of Romanesque or Gothic or Renaissance ornaments and structures. Of this aberration there was a woeful amount some thirty years ago, when pseudo-Gothic railway stations and pseudo-Renaissance restaurants seemed to the average architect the very acme of artistic achievement. The new style seeks to create from within and to serve, first of all, the purpose for which the individual building is designed. In doing so, it makes use of the forms of the past, applies them in a free, eclectic manner, utilizes local and provincial variations of style, and attempts to harmonize all these varied structural parts into an even, well-balanced, genuine, indigenous whole.

Thus Theodor Fischer, of Munich, has succeeded in the new university building at Jena in producing something which brings before our eyes, as it were, the whole architectural history of Thuringia from farm-house to castle and city hall, and which at the same time impresses the untutored spectator as a grand and noble structure, simple in outline and massive in size. Thus German Bestelmeyer, of Dresden, has succeeded in combining in the new court of Munich University the traditional forms of Romanesque cloisters with the spacious proportions of the modern public hall. Thus Alfred Messel, of Berlin, has succeeded in creating a new type of building, the modern department store glorified by art; not a motley aggregation of incongruous ornaments, but a unified and at the same time varied hall of display, combining the airiness and spaciousness of modern exposition buildings with the stateliness and dignity of the patrician burgher house of the Middle Ages. And if, as it fortunately seems certain, the last design of this great architect, who died so prematurely, is to be carried out, Berlin will have in the new group of museums on the Spree Island an array of monumental buildings thoroughly in accord with the best traditions of the German Renaissance, altogether characteristic of the monarchical discipline of Prussia, and fully expressive of the striving for high national ideals which dominates the new Empire.

The same spirit of concentrated and controlled power is coming to the front in sculpture. Nearly every German city of importance has, in the midst of much that is florid and exaggerated, some example of this new, measured, and truly monumental style. But it may perhaps best be seen in the two old Hanse towns Hamburg and Bremen.

In Hamburg, on the Stintfang, a hill on the outskirts of the business part of the

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city, overlooking the harbor and the Elbe River, there stands the colossal Bismarck monument by Hugo Lederer, towering some hundred and thirty feet high. It is not too much to say that in this monument the spirit of the Bismarckian age has found its supreme artistic expression. There is nothing like it in modern sculpture, and perhaps one has to go back to the gigantic monuments of ancient Egypt to find its counterpart. Here there is, not a huge plastic figure placed upon a huge pedestal, such as the Statue of Liberty in New York Harbor or the Bavaria statue at Munich; such a mere enlargement of human proportions cannot help having an inartistic effect. In the Hamburg Bismarck there is no distinction between figure and pedestal; the two are combined together into one mighty tower-like structure. A round foundation of roughly hewn granite blocks leads to a platform from which there rises another round understructure, articulated by eight projecting pillars, on the surface of which there stand out in relief the heroic outlines of naked men, repeating in a great variety of movements the one theme of power and vitality. From this understructure there rises the pedestal proper, again round and towerlike and encircled by columns. And above this there looms up the colossal granite figure of Bismarck himself, continuing the tower *motif* and appearing as an integral part, as the organic culmination, of the whole structure.

Of the unity and grandeur of this figure it is impossible to give an adequate conception. Like a Roland of old, Bismarck is steeled from head to foot; his hands rest on the hilt of a colossal broadsword which he has placed before him on the ground. A wide, heavy mantle falls over his shoulders and his back, down to his feet, thus adding to the massiveness of the figure and also forming a background for two mighty eagles that are cowering at the right and left, hiding the side view of the legs up to the knee. The head is not covered by a helmet, and the massive bare skull and the deep-set eyes seem to dominate every part of the monument. Thus the whole gigantic figure is held together and seems like a plastic outgrowth of the architectural understructure. No part of the body stands out from the rest with undue emphasis; nowhere are we distracted by too much or too elaborate detail. We have the feeling that here is a supreme embodiment of power in calm repose, here stands before us the eternal Bismarck, the Bismarck that will go down into the legend of the centuries.

If in this Hamburg Bismarck monument by Lederer cyclopic strength has been lifted into the sphere of true art, the equestrian statue of Emperor Frederick by Ludwig Tuaillon, which a few years ago was erected at Bremen, receives its strength from its pure human beauty. Not since Schlüter's Great Elector has such an equestrian statue been produced in Germany. Here, again, we have an absolute unity of conception. This rider and his horse are one. Together they are a glorification of a royal state of mind. The noble Frederick is represented neither as a general nor as an emperor. It was not in military achievements nor in acts of state that his greatness rested. He is represented as a man, almost naked, only with the lightest suggestion of the costume of a Marcus Aurelius. But every muscle of this superb body, every part of his gesture, his whole free, heroic, benign carriage, bespeak his chivalrous, generous, princely spirit. We recognize the kingly man, the idol of his people, the noble sufferer, the serene philosopher, the friend of everything human, and we turn away from this monument with the feeling of having had a sight of something supremely uplifting, something divine.

Architecture and sculpture seem to me the two arts in which—apart from the reproductive art of acting—contemporary Germany comes nearest to true greatness. But it is clearly undeniable that in painting, in music, and in literature also a decided striving for mastery of form, for discipline and restraint, for delicacy of delineation, for measure, for totality of effect, is making itself more and more strongly felt. Such recent productions as Humperdinck's "Königskinder," as Hodler's powerful frescoes for the University of Jena, as the fascinating and finely chiseled ballads by Börries von Münchhausen, as Clara Viebig's, Thomas Mann's, Ernst Zahn's, or Hermann Hesse's novels, as Gerhart Hauptmann's wonderful "Emanuel

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Quint,'" as Karl Schönherr's truly noble drama "Glaube und Heimat," are only a few indications among many that this movement for refinement and purification of form is constantly gathering force. When it comes to be the dominant note, then the long-looked-for golden age of German art and letters will indeed have arrived, and another proof will have been given of the truth contained in Goethe's and Schiller's ideal of art as the great uplifter and harmonizer, the intermediator between the spirit and the senses, between maker and form, between the unruly self and the universal law:

"Vergebens werden angebundene Geister
Nach der Vollendung reiner Höhe streben.
In der Beschra'nkung zeigt sich erst der Meister,
Und das Gesetz nur kann uns Freiheit geben."

RACES AND POLITICS

BY BOOKER T. WASHINGTON

AUTHOR OF "UP FROM SLAVERY," "THE STORY OF THE NEGRO," ETC.

THE THIRD ARTICLE IN THE SERIES CALLED "THE MAN FARTHEST DOWN"

IN Prague, the capital of Bohemia, I came in contact for the first time with the advance guard, if I may use the expression, of a new race, the Slavs. I say a new race, because, although the Slavic peoples claim an antiquity as great as that of any other race in Europe, the masses of the race seem just now emerging from a condition of life more primitive than that of almost any other people in Europe.

Many little things, not only what I saw with my own eyes, but what I heard from others, gave me the impression, as I traveled southward, that I was entering into a country where the masses of the people lived a simpler and more primitive existence than any I had seen elsewhere in Europe. I remember, for one thing, that I was one day startled to see, in the neighborhood of the mining regions of Bohemia, a half-dozen women engaged in loading a coal barge—shoveling the coal into wheelbarrows and wheeling them along a narrow plank from the coal wharf to the ship alongside.

I was impressed, again, by the fact that several of the peoples of the Austrian Empire—the Moravians and Ruthenians are an illustration—still preserve their old tribal names. Certain other of these peoples still keep not only the tribal names, but many of the old tribal customs. Among most of the Slavic peoples, for example, custom still gives to the marriage ceremony the character of barter and sale. In fact, I found that in one of the large provincial towns in eastern Hungary the old "matrimonial fairs" are still kept up. On a certain day in each year hundreds of marriageable young women are brought down to this fair by their parents, where they may be seen seated on their trunks and surrounded by the cattle they expect to have for a dowry. Naturally young men come from all the surrounding country to attend this fair, and usually a lawyer sits out under a tree near by prepared to draw up the marriage contract. In some cases as many as forty marriages are arranged in this way in a single day.

Divided into petty kingdoms or provinces, each speaking a separate language, living for the most part in the country districts, and held in some sort of political and economic subjection, sometimes by the descendants of foreign conquerors, and sometimes, as in the case of the Poles, by the nobility of their own race, the masses of the Slavic peoples in southern Europe have lived for centuries out of touch with the life of cities, and to a large extent out of touch with the world. Compared, therefore, with the peoples of western Europe, who are living

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in the centers of modern life and progress, the Slavic peoples are just now on the horizon.

In the course of my travels through Austria and Hungary I think I met, at one time or another, representatives of nearly every branch of the Slavic race in the Empire. In Bohemia I became acquainted, as I have said, with the most progressive portion of the race, the Czechs. In Galicia I saw something of the life of the Polish people, both in the towns and in the country districts. Again, in Budapest and Vienna I learned something of the condition of the laboring and peasant classes, among whom the Slavic peoples are usually in the majority. At Fiume, the port of Hungary from which forty thousand emigrants sail every year for the United States, I met and talked with Dalmatians, Croatians, Slovenes, Ruthenians, and Serbs—representatives, in fact, of almost every race in Hungary. In the plains of central Hungary, and again in eastern Prussia, I saw gangs of wandering laborers, made up of men and women who come to this part of the country from the Slavic countries farther south and east to take part in the harvest on the great estates.

During this time I became acquainted to some extent also with representatives of almost every type of civilization, high and low, among the peoples of southern Europe, from the Dalmatian herdsmen, who lead a rude and semi-barbarous existence on the high, barren mountains along the coast of the Adriatic, to the thrifty and energetic artisans of Bohemia and the talented Polish nobility, who are said to be among the most intellectual people in Europe.

I did not, among these classes I have mentioned, see the most primitive people of the Slavic race, nor the type of the man of that race farthest down. In fact, I have heard that in the mountain regions of southern Galicia there are people who make their homes in holes in the ground or herd together in little huts built of mud. I did not see, either, as I should like to have seen, the life of those Slavic people in southwestern Hungary who still hold their lands in common and live together in patriarchal communities, several families beneath one roof, under the rule of a "house father" and a "house mother," who are elected annually to govern the community.

What little I did see of the life of the different branches of the race gave me the impression, however, of a people of great possibilities, who, coming late into the possession of modern ideas and modern methods, were everywhere advancing, in some places rapidly and in others more slowly, but always making progress.

One thing that has hindered the advancement of the Slavs has been the difference in the languages spoken by the different branches of the race. So great an obstacle is this difference of language that some years ago, when a congress of all the Slavic peoples was held at Prague, the representatives of the different branches of the race, having no common tongue, were compelled to speak to each other in the one language that they all professed to hate, namely, German.

Another thing that has hindered the progress of the Slavs has been the inherited jealousies and the memories they cherish of ancient injuries they have inflicted on one another in times past. In general, it seems to be true of the races of Austria-Hungary that each race or branch of the race hates and despises every other, and this hatred is the more bitter the more closely they are associated. For example, there is a long-standing feud between the Polish peasants and the Polish nobility. This division is so great that the Polish peasants have frequently sided against the Polish nobility in the contests of the latter with the central government of Austria. However, this sentiment of caste which separates the two classes of the Polish people is nothing compared with the contempt with which every Pole, whether he be peasant or noble, feels for every Ruthenian, a people with whom the Pole is very closely related by blood, and with whom he has long been in close political association. On the other hand, the Ruthenian in Galicia looks upon the Pole, just as the Czech in Bohemia looks upon his German neighbor, as his bitterest enemy. The two peoples refuse to intermingle socially; they rarely intermarry; in many cases they maintain separate schools, and are represented separately in the Imperial Parliament, each race electing its

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own representatives. But all are united in hating and despising the Jew, who, although he claims for himself no separate part of the Empire, and has no language to distinguish himself from the other races about him, still clings as tenaciously as any other portion of the population to his own racial traditions and customs.

The Slavic peoples, otherwise divided by language and tradition, are also divided by religion. People speaking the same language, and sharing in other respects the same traditions, are frequently just as widely separated by differences of religion as they could be by differences of race. For example, among the southern Slavs the majority of the Slovenes and the Croatians are Roman Catholics, others are Protestants. On the other hand, the majority of the Serbs, their close neighbors, are members of the Greek Orthodox Church, while others are Mohammedans. So wide is the division between the Roman Catholic and the Orthodox Slavs that in some cases members of the Eastern and Western branches of the Church belonging to the same nationality wear a different costume in order to emphasize the differences of religion that might otherwise be forgotten or overlooked.

In Galicia there are not only the Roman and Orthodox branches of the Church, but there are also three or four other minor branches. One of these, the Uniates, which is a compromise between the two and is intended to be a sort of link between the Eastern and Western Churches, is now, it is said, just as distinct from both as any of the other branches of the Church. In this region, which has been the battle-ground of all the religions in Europe, religious distinctions play a much more important rôle than they do elsewhere, because the masses of the people have not yet forgotten the bitterness and the harshness of the early struggles of the sects. The result is that religious differences seem to have intensified rather than to have softened the racial animosities.

In spite of the divisions and rivalries which exist, there seems to be growing up, under the influence of the struggle against the other and dominant races in the Empire, and as a result of the political agitations to which this struggle has given rise, a sense of common purpose and interest in the different branches of the Slavic race; a sort of racial consciousness, as it is sometimes called, which seems to be one of the conditions without which a race that is down is not able to get the ambition and the courage to rise.

It is the presence of this great Slav race in western Europe, groping its way forward under the conditions and difficulties which I have described, that constitutes, as well as I am able to define it, the race problem of southern Europe.

In many respects the situation of the Slavs in the Austro-Hungarian Empire and in southern Europe generally is more like that of the Negroes in the Southern States than is true of any other class or race in Europe. For one thing, the vast majority of that race are, like the Negroes, an agricultural people. For centuries they have lived and worked on the soil, where they have been the servants of the great landowners, looked down upon by the educated and higher classes as "an inferior race." Although they were not distinguished from the dominant classes, as the Negro was, by the color of their skin, they were distinguished by the language they spoke, and this difference in language seems to have been, as far as mutual understanding and sympathy are concerned, a greater bar than the fact of color has been in the case of the white man and the black man in the South.

Up to a comparatively few years ago an educated Slav did not ordinarily speak, at least in public, the language of the masses of the people. Dr. Clark, the head of the Austrian Mission of the American Board in Prague, told me that as recently as thirty years ago an educated Czech did not care to speak his own language on the streets of Prague. At that time the German language was still the language of the educated classes, and all the learning of Europe was, to a very large extent, a closed book to the people who did not speak and read that language.

To-day conditions have so changed, Dr. Clark tells me, that the people in certain quarters of Prague scowl at any one who speaks German on the street.

"When we go to visit an official of the Government," said Dr. Clark, "we usually

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inquire, first of all, which language this particular official prefers to speak, German or Czech. It is wise to do this because most of the officials, particularly if they represent the central government of Vienna, speak German, but a Czech who is loyal to his race will not speak the hated German unless he has to do so."

Dr. Clark told me, as illustrating the fanaticism of the Bohemian people in this matter of language, that his little girls, who had been educated in German schools and preferred to speak that language among themselves, had more than once been hooted at, and even stoned, by young Bohemians in the part of the town where he lives, because they spoke a language which the masses of the people had been brought up to hate.

Another way in which the situation of the Slavic people resembles, to a certain extent, that of the masses of the Negroes in the Southern States, is in the matter of their political relations to the dominant races. Both in Austria and in Hungary all the races are supposed to have the same political privileges, and, in the case of Austria at least, the Government seems to have made a real effort to secure equal rights to all. Here, again, racial and traditional prejudices, as well as the wide differences in wealth and culture of the different peoples, have kept the political power in Austria proper in the hands of the Germans, and in Hungary in the hands of the Magyars.

What makes the situation more difficult for the dominant races in these two countries is the fact that the so-called inferior peoples are increasing more rapidly than the other races in numbers, and the Germans and Magyars are every year becoming a smaller minority in the midst of the populations which they are attempting to control. The result has been that the Empire seems to the one who looks on from the outside a seething mass of discontent, with nothing but the fear of being swallowed up by some of their more powerful neighbors to hold the nationalities together.

There is one respect in which the situation of the Negro in America is entirely different from the various nationalities of Austria and Hungary. The Negro is not compelled to get his education through the medium of a language that is foreign to the other people by whom he is surrounded. The black man in the South speaks the same tongue and professes the same religion as the white people. He is not seeking to set up any separate nationality for himself nor to create any interest for himself which is separate from or antagonistic to the interest of the other people of the United States. The Negro is not seeking to dominate politically, at the expense of the white population, any part of the country which he inhabits. Although he has suffered wrongs and injustices, he has not become embittered or fanatical. Competition with the white race about him has given the Negro an ambition to succeed and made him feel pride in the successes he has already achieved; but he is just as proud to be an American citizen as he is to be a Negro. He cherishes no ambitions that are opposed to the interests of the white people, but is anxious to prove himself a help rather than a hindrance to the success and prosperity of the other race.

I doubt whether there are many people in our Southern States who have considered how much more difficult the situation in the Southern States would be if the masses of the black people spoke a language different from the white people around them, and particularly if, at the same time, they cherished political and social ambitions that were antagonistic to the interests of the white man.

On the other hand, I doubt whether the Negro people realize the advantage which they have in speaking one of the great world languages, the language, in fact, that is more largely used than any other by the people who are most advanced in science, in the arts, and in all that makes the world better. English is not only a great world language, it is the language of a people and a race among whom the highest are neither afraid nor ashamed to reach down and lift up the lowest, and help them in their efforts to reach a higher and a better life.

In the south of Europe conditions are quite different. The languages spoken there, so far from helping to bring people together, are the very means by which the peoples are kept apart. Furthermore, the masses of the people of Austria

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speak languages which, until a hundred years ago, had almost no written literature. Up to the beginning of the last century the educated people of Hungary spoke and wrote in Latin, and down to the middle of the century Latin was still the language of the Court. Until 1848 there were almost no schools in the Czech language in Bohemia. Up to that time there were almost no newspapers, magazines, or books printed in the language spoken by the masses of the people.

It has been said that the written or literary languages of the Slavic people have been, with one or two exceptions, almost created during the past hundred years. In fact, some of the Slavs, although they have a rich oral literature, still have, I have been told, no written language of their own.

A great change has been brought about in this respect in recent years. At the present time, of the 5,000 periodicals printed in Austria-Hungary, about 2,000 are printed in German, 938 in Magyar, 582 in Czech, and the remaining 1,480 are in some five or six other languages. The Magyar language is now taught in all the schools of Hungary, whether some other language is taught at the same time or not. Outside of Hungary, in Austria proper, there are some 8,000 exclusively German schools, 5,578 Czech, and 6,632 schools in which are taught other Slav dialects, not to speak of the 645 schools in which Italian is taught, the 162 schools in which Rumanian is taught, and the 5 in which Magyar is taught.

To an outsider it seems as if the purpose of these schools must be to perpetuate the existing confusion and racial animosities in the Empire. On the other side, it must be remembered that it has been an enormous advantage to the masses of the people to be able to read the language which they habitually speak. In fact, the multiplication of these different written languages, and of schools in which they are taught, seems to have been the only way of opening to the masses of the people the learning which had been before that time locked up in languages which they sometimes learned to read but rarely spoke.

As I have considered the complications and difficulties, both political and economic, which not merely Austria but Europe has to face as a consequence of the different languages spoken by the different races, I have asked myself what would probably happen in our Southern States if, as some people have suggested, large numbers of these foreign peoples were induced to settle there. I greatly fear that if these people should come in large numbers and settle in colonies outside of the cities, where they would have comparatively few educational advantages and where they would be better able and more disposed to preserve their native customs and languages, we might have a racial problem in the South more difficult and more dangerous than that which is caused by the presence of the Negro. Whatever else one may say of the Negro, he is, in everything except his color, more like the Southern white man, more willing and able to absorb the ideas and the culture of the white man and adapt himself to existing conditions, than is true of any other race which is now coming into this country.

Perhaps my attempt to compare racial conditions in southern Europe with racial conditions in the Southern United States will seem to some persons a trifle strange and out of place because in the one case the races concerned are both white, while in the other case one is white and one is black. Nevertheless, I am convinced that a careful study of conditions as they exist in southern Europe will throw a great deal of light upon the situation of the races in our Southern States. More than that, strange and irrational as racial conflicts often seem, whether in Europe or in America, I suspect that at bottom they are merely the efforts of groups of people to readjust their relations under changing conditions. In short, they grow out of the efforts of the people who are at the bottom to lift themselves to a higher stage of existence.

If that be so, it seems to me there need be no fear, under a free government where every man is given opportunity to get an education, where every man is encouraged to develop in himself and bring to the service of the community the best that is in him, that racial difficulties should not finally be adjusted, and white man and black man live, each helping rather than hindering the other.

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THE NEW BOOKS

Cecil Rhodes died in 1902. As we get further and further away from his life, his personality only looms the larger. It is not surprising, then, that a number of biographical appreciations should have appeared, of which those by Mr. Hensman and Sir Thomas Fuller have already been noticed in The Outlook. Two others have now appeared; the first by Sir Lewis Michell, the second by Mr. Philip Jourdan. Sir Lewis had an intimate acquaintance with Rhodes, was his associate in local, political, and financial life, and, as an executor and trustee under Rhodes's will, has had access to invaluable private and official papers. As regards history, Sir Lewis Michell's two volumes on "The Life and Times of the Right Honourable Cecil John Rhodes: 1853–1902" (Mitchell Kennerley, New York, $7.50) are specially worth while, for they show us Rhodes in his capacity of politician, statesman, and empire-maker from the early days on the diamond-fields to the end. In reminiscences of private life, however, Mr. Philip Jourdan's "Cecil Rhodes: His Private Life. By His Private Secretary" (The John Lane Company, New York, $2.50) is, as may be fancied from such a title, certainly a book to be read. Each work, however, discloses "a modern Englishman cast in antique mold;" each discloses a man of steady and dauntless ambition. But each also discloses a larger and finer and humaner Rhodes than we had known. Rhodes has not always or generally been rated at his true worth. As Mr. Jourdan says, unjust charges with reference to his private life have been disseminated. Indeed, the chief object of Mr. Jourdan's book is to refute these libels. Finally, as a last touch, and as a desirable touch too, we have in each work the continual and insistent note of personal affection. As Thackeray was never able to let one of his favorite characters quite explain himself, but must needs always add some little caressing, explanatory touch, so with our present biographers. They are not quite willing to allow the heroic figure to stand out unrelieved against the horizon. In truth, it should not so stand out, for, crude in some things, Rhodes's whole purpose in the endeavor to give effect to his abiding faith in England's destiny is still to be measured as it should be. Certainly it is fortunate that his memory is perpetuated in the Rhodes Scholarships, an influence in drawing together English-speaking peoples. While thus his four biographers afford us a nearer view of the indomitable empire-maker, no one of the books may be regarded as saying the final word.

When we have had to consult books of reference concerning Servia, we have had to read works dealing not only with Servia but with other Balkan states. We have had a consequent feeling that the information regarding each of the states was overcondensed. Now, however, we have the welcome privilege of consulting a work in two volumes on Servia, volumes packed with interesting statistics, to which, however, there is a regrettably insufficient index. In "The Servian People" Prince and Princess Lazarovich-Hrebelianovich have rendered a real service to all who would know more intimately the life lived in the Servian Balkans. As the reader will expect, the work has been prepared with ardent love of country and with the hope of a new national Servian future, uniting under one rule all the ten million members of the Servian stock. But, as the reader might not expect, the work has been written with much charm of style. It thus makes a double appeal. Quite aside from the vivid view afforded of the physical and moral characteristics of the Servian people—of their language, traditions, clans, family life, customs, systems of education and of government—the work is valuable because of its picture of Servian history, especially its emphasis on that heroic mediæval time when the Serbs brought their civilization to a high state of excellence only to have it wiped out by the cruel Turkish conquest. We do not realize, for instance, that prior to the conquest equality before the law was enforced in Servia to a degree unknown in more western Europe, and that trial by jury was in use in Servia before it came into use in many another region of Europe. In comparison, the space given to modern history seems crowded in places; certainly we anticipated a more extended account of the circumstances attendant upon the murder of the late King and Queen. In the second place, the work is noteworthy because it instructs us, as we have not hitherto been instructed, as to just what constitutes the Servian lands now under foreign domination. After reading the work those lands stand out in clear relief. They are Bosnia and Herzegovina in Austria-Hungary, Dalmatia in Austria, Croatia-Slavonia, Banat, and Batchka in Hungary, and that ill-defined region known as Old Servia and Macedonia in Turkey. In the third place, the work includes an account of the undertaking now being promoted by Prince Lazarovich—a Serbo-Turkish canal nearly four hundred miles long to join the river Danube with the Ægean Sea. For this purpose the river Morava in Servia and the river Vardar in Turkey would be utilized, connecting them with a canal across the low watershed where both rivers rise, a reservoir or artificial lake being created to feed the canal. The Ægean terminus would be at Salonika. It is proposed that the canal shall be navigable for boats of a thousand tons carrying capacity. Such a canal would form an important route to be used in conjunction with the canals connecting North Europe with the river Danube—the Danube-Elbe, Dan-

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ube-Oder, and the Danube-Main-Rhine Canals. The proposed Serbo-Turkish Canal would not only furnish a remarkably short and cheap route, but, in particular, would avoid the dangers and difficulties of the lower Danube and of the Black Sea navigation. All these advantages would, one might think, be sufficient to justify the Servian and Turkish Governments in favorably contemplating the proposal to construct such a waterway. The volumes also deal to some extent with Servia's relation to other Balkan states, and, as might be expected, while recommending the individual development of those states, emphasize the desirability of a Balkan federation for the common defense. We also believe that, if international equilibrium is to be maintained, there should be such a federation of states wholly independent of the controlling European powers. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $5.)

To interpret history one must know the mental, moral, and spiritual qualities of men; that is to say, their psychological character. This gained, one must know about the environment of men—the mold in which they have been cast, generation after generation. Only so may the characters, movements, and events of history be rightly understood. Now the chief molding force is held to be geographic environment, and this in the large sense in which geography is now defined, a description not only of the earth and its influence on our development, but also of those solar, atmospheric, and geological forces which throughout millions of years have given to the earth its present form. In this deeper meaning geography describes the divine purpose expressing itself through natural forces. We discern this particularly in the life and thought of the Jewish race as molded by the physical features of Palestine. By a curious coincidence, two books on this subject appear at the same time, books which should find their place in the library of Bible teachers and Bible students. What is more curious, each is by a Yale professor. One of the volumes is Dr. Charles Foster Kent's "Biblical Geography and History" (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, $1.50); the other, Mr. Ellsworth Huntington's "Palestine and its Transformation" (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, $2). The first is a compact and condensed manual of historical geography or geographical history; it is evidently intended for the class-room; its many maps and its suggestions for further pictorial use are well in place. The second volume will appeal more to the general reader. Dr. Kent is Professor of Biblical Literature at Yale, and Mr. Huntington is Assistant Professor of Geography there. The first author's primary interest is probably in the religious significance of Palestine; the second author's main interest is doubtless in studying the effect of geography on the distribution of men and on man's mode of life and thought. Both books lay emphasis on geology, showing that the processes of erosion, acting for longer or shorter intervals, had given rise to distinct types of scenery. Moreover, especially in Mr. Huntington's book, the changes of climate are shown to have been potent factors in the guidance of some of the greatest historical movements. We had a right to expect this development of the subject from one who has similarly treated it in "The Pulse of Asia." Of course, as he says, the Hebrew conceptions of God and of man's relations with God might possibly have been molded under conditions other than those of Palestine. But we can have little doubt that under such circumstances they would have assumed a form distinctly different from the historical form. As we follow either author over the plateau of Galilee, or the hills of Samaria, or down the valley of the Jordan, or up the stony steeps of Judea, we too realize that mountain and plain, river and sea, climate and flora, had each a religiously historical meaning. Both authors have been compelled to extend their researches far outside the bounds of Palestine. While in the first part of his book Mr. Huntington confines his attention closely to the Holy Land, in the second part he is forced to include many surrounding regions and to include Egyptian and Babylonian history in order to comprehend that of Palestine. Dr. Kent's is the opposite, and perhaps the better, method. He considers the whole Biblical world first, and then narrows his attention to Palestine; and the whole Biblical world for him finds its western outpost at the Phœnician city of Tarshish in southern Spain; its eastern, at the Persian Gulf and Caspian Sea; the Black Sea bounds its northern horizon, and Ethiopia its southern. Each writer shows that the races have followed the lines of development marked out by the geographical environment. Quite aside from its value as a scientific work, Mr. Huntington's volume should be read by those who have traveled in Palestine. They will relive their experiences on many a page. More than one has repeated this author's experience at Nablus:

> Shechem, the modern Nablus, . . . is a strangely contracted place, wedged in between the rounded mountains of Ebal and Gerizim, whose lower slopes are covered with rocky terraces set with hedges of cactus. That so constricted a town should be fanatical seems appropriate. In search of the other members of the caravan, I traversed the long, covered street upon which the bazaars are strung. As I entered, small boys threw stones at me, and shouted, "*Giaour, giaour!*" (Infidel, infidel!) A man in a green turban, a descendant of the Prophet Mohammed, sourly motioned to me to dismount. Another, in white surplice and red turban, a member of the diminished sect of the Samaritans, stroked his long gray beard and did likewise.

Many observers claim that Japan needs, not only Korea, but also Manchuria, for her surplus population. So far as we know, however, few observers have pointed out, as does E. G. Kemp in "The Face of Manchuria, Korea, and Russian Turkestan," that

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China, still lord over Manchuria, needs that great viceroyalty for her own surplus population, "pouring into it daily by thousands in the early spring." As Japan has long been supposed to be among the most densely populated regions, it may be surprising to some to learn that, according to the present work, the density of population in that country is less than that of Great Britain, Belgium, Holland, or Saxony. The volume has distinct value, not only as disclosing the positions of Japan and Russia in Manchuria, but also as disclosing the somewhat less selfish positions of other powers there, and those powers are the Methodists, Episcopalians, Presbyterians, and others who are changing slowly the moral and religious "face" of Manchuria and Korea. We note that the Presbyterians seem to have divided the two countries as follows: the Irish and Scotch Presbyterians work in Manchuria, and the American and Australian Presbyterians in Korea. The volume's most patent value, however, is that of a book of travel. Its author has written the text and painted the pictures; both are exquisitely impressionistic. (Duffield & Co., New York. $2.20.)

From twenty-five to thirty-five thousand years ago, according to conservative estimates, Arctic rigors fell on the northern hemisphere, spreading a continental glacier as far south as New York and Cincinnati. Its indelible records, especially on this continent, are exhibited in Professor G. Frederick Wright's volume "The Ice Age in North America." Since its original publication in 1889 a host of investigators, among whom Dr. Wright has been eminent, have been at work upon the geological records of that colossal glacier, to the effects of which the present interests of the United States and Canada owe enormously. The present (fifth) edition of Dr. Wright's work, revised and enlarged with fresh matter, besides diagrams, maps, and photographs, is practically almost a new book. Its minute studies of the glacial record in numerous localities East and West give it special interest for residents north of the fortieth parallel of latitude. The cause of that stupendous frost, a problem still obscure, is discussed at length by Dr. Wright, who is inclined to assign it to meteorological rather than to the astronomical forces for which Mr. Croll has advanced a widely accepted theory. As to the bearing of the glacial record on the antiquity of man, the evidence is conclusive for his existence in the warm period preceding the invasion of the ice. Dr. Wright sees much to favor the belief "that the Eskimo is the lineal descendant of the preglacial men whose implements are found in New Jersey, Ohio, and Minnesota;" much also for the origin of the numerous traditions of a deluge destructive to mankind in "the conditions accompanying the floods which closed the glacial period." For the antiquity of these the Niagara gorge, for the formation of which ten thousand years is taken as a liberal estimate, serves as "a glacial chronometer." Dr. Wright's volume is a noble memorial of long and patient devotion to scientific study of a field still rich in unsolved questions. (The Bibliotheca Sacra Company, Oberlin, Ohio. $5.)

Madame de Maintenon was the one pure character in the Court of Louis XIV of France. As he could not make her his mistress, he made her his wife by a secret marriage. Of course she was the subject of curious gossip and of malignant calumny. It is the primary object of "Louis XIV and Madame de Maintenon," by Charlotte, Lady Blennerhasset, to redeem Madame de Maintenon's reputation from these calumnies. In this it succeeds; previous historians had prepared the way for the defense. Her influence at Court appears to have been wholly beneficial, except as the intolerance which she shared with her age made her a supporter of religious wars and of religious persecution. Her conduct at Court appears to have been wholly exemplary, without exception. The characterization of her by Fénelon, in an extraordinarily frank letter to her, a kind of letter which only a very sincere confessor could have written to a very sincere penitent, is justified by the biography: "Your conduct with those you like is perfect, but with others you are cold and distant. . . . You are over-fond of the esteem of good people, of their approbation, of the pleasure of showing your moderation in prosperity; you are proud of your inward worth, not of your station." These are almost virtues; we are inclined to say that in the Court of France in the seventeenth century they were entirely virtues. The volume is too minute and assumes too much knowledge in the reader to be of interest except to those who already have, or who from other sources obtain, some knowledge of European, and especially of French, history at this period. To such readers it will be both interesting and valuable. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $3.75.)

"The Growth of Napoleon," by Norwood Young, is an interesting study marred by the anti-Napoleonic prejudice of the author. There is nothing to justify, for example, the author's conclusion that Napoleon's expressed opinion that his brother Joseph was better fitted for the Church than for the army was due to jealousy. It was, in fact, apparently a very correct opinion. So the chapter on Napoleon's "luck" is almost ludicrous in its quiet assumption of what other generals could have done if they had been given the chance. In his account of the failures in Napoleon's later campaigns he gives no indication of any acquaintance with Lord Wolseley's interesting explanation of the decline and fall of Napoleon, due probably to physical deterioration caused by his excesses. On the other hand, Mr. Young's account of Napoleon's youth in Corsica, of his remarkable mother, of the influence of

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Paoli over his ideals and ambitions, of some of his early writings—crude, boyish, but significant of his temperament—is interesting and suggestive. (Duffield & Co., New York. $3.)

The interest of oddity and queerness attaches to the volume called "Ancient, Curious, and Famous Wills," by Virgil M. Harris. This is a book not for the lawyer but for the general reader. The title exactly describes it, except that it might be added that many of these stories about wills are apparently little more than newspaper anecdotes which have not been verified. The author, at the outset, raises the question of the oldest will known to have been made, and, passing by various traditions about wills of Adam, Noah, Job, and Jacob, concludes that the oldest known written will was made by one Sekhenren about forty-five hundred years ago. Its method and phraseology are in some respects almost modern, and, if the discovery of this will by Mr. Petrie is beyond question, as the book asserts, it seems to us to contradict a prevailing idea that written wills were not known in distant antiquity. The strange and often even comical provisions of the wills of eccentrics are abundant, but perhaps there is nothing odder among them all than the bequest of a dissenting minister to provide "six Bibles every year for which six men and six women are to throw dice on Whittuesday after the morning service, the minister kneeling the while at the south end of the communion table and praying God to direct the lot to his glory." Perhaps the shortest will admitted to probate is "Mary, all that is mine is thine," written on a scrap of card by a man fatally injured in a railway accident. (Little, Brown & Co., Boston. $4.)

It is not often that one comes across a new writer—new, at least, in the sense of not being familiar by name to most readers—who has the gift of the light and entertaining touch to the degree found in the volume of collected papers "The Patient Observer and His Friends." Mr. Simon Strunsky, the author of these cheerful talks, is, if we are not mistaken, a working journalist; and some or all of the chapters have appeared in newspaper form. Mr. Strunsky does not hesitate to use the methods of burlesque, but he never indulges in mere comic writing. He is a master of the whimsical, and very happy in presenting odd ideas with a touch of imagination and a pervading spirit of humor and friendliness. (Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. $1.20.)

In his "Aspects of Islām" Professor Duncan Black Macdonald, of Hartford Theological Seminary, a recognized authority in Semitic studies, has followed his other works on Mohammedanism with a highly interesting and instructive display of "the many-colored globe of Muslim life and thought." These lectures in the Hartford-Lamson series on Comparative Religion aim to impart to the intending missionary the sympathetic spirit as well as the proper information required at entrance upon his field. Of a controversial and combative spirit too much, says Dr. Macdonald, has been seen. His maxim is that the missionary "must have a liking for his people, and their queerest little ways, even while trying to change them." In this sympathetic approach he studied the dervishes, whom we have been wont to class with the medicine-men of the Western Indians. Having gained admission as a friend to one of their meetings, he tells us: "I did my best to let the swinging chant work upon me, and more than once it came over me that I should like to go down and join the circle there, to take my part in this thing and discover more precisely how it all felt from within; . . . a Muslim prayer-meeting it really was." We underestimate, he adds, the religious meaning and value of the dervishes' life. Underneath the stiff dogmatism of Moslem theology Dr. Macdonald finds, as "the final basis for all thoughtful religion in Islām," the mysticism in which Quakers follow the "inner Light"—"the one thing that is absolutely common to the religious life of all mankind." In this spirit of friendly criticism, intent on finding points of agreement amidst unwelcome differences from the Christian world, Dr. Macdonald presents many aspects of Moslem life, together with the serious problems, religious and political, which they suggest. He has succeeded eminently well in freshening a somewhat trite subject with new light and interest. (The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.50.)

We will not say that Mr. Harris Dickson's stories which have been joined together to form a continuous tale under the title "Old Reliable" are the very best things of their kind ever written; but we will say that they are worthy to be placed beside the best, that they are nearly as good as the Negro stories by Harry Stillman Edwards, whose "Two Runaways" is really beyond praise, by Thomas Nelson Page, and by Mrs. Ruth McEnery Stuart. "Old Reliable" is a perfect specimen of the shiftless darky whose moral standard in small matters is quite deplorable, but who has a genial friendliness that makes even the people whom he deceives and cheats regard him with kindly feelings. His adventures are many and humorous; and the turns and twists of his good luck and bad luck are told with relish and raciness by Mr. Dickson. Altogether the book is thoroughly enjoyable. (The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis. $1.50.)

Slight but pleasant sketches of life and character in an English country town are told with quiet humor and sympathy by J. E. Buckrose in "Down Our Street." A sort of modernized "Cranford" is presented, but without Mrs. Gaskell's deftness of literary art. (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. $1.35.)

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LETTERS TO THE OUTLOOK

THE NEW YORK POLICE AND THE MAYOR

Dr. Lyman Abbott at the Peace Congress in Baltimore, arguing against present disarmament, said (we quote briefly and from memory) that it was not safe for civilized nations to disarm while uncivilized nations retained their armaments, that the result might easily be what it had been in New York, where the police had been forbidden to use their clubs, with, as a result, a great increase of crime. Criticised for this statement, which was based on public and general report as to the first statement, and on the finding of a Grand Jury as to the second, since confirmed by the finding of another Grand Jury, Dr. Abbott wrote to Mayor Gaynor, and we herewith publish Mayor Gaynor's reply. This statement as to the supposed order to the police not to use their clubs is final, and we gladly give the information to our readers. The question whether crime has increased or not is a matter on which opinions may differ, and we shall hereafter give our readers the reasons which lead us to differ in opinion from Mayor Gaynor on that point. After expressing appreciation for the fairness of the request, Mayor Gaynor says:

No clubs or weapons of any kind have been taken from the police since I have been Mayor. The matter has never even been mooted, so far as I know. You must see yourself, day and night, that the police are carrying their clubs. Nor has any restriction been put upon their use of their clubs, except that I made it known that unlawful batteries by the police on citizens had to stop, and that all citizens had to be treated with courtesy and respect. Several policemen were dismissed for atrocious batteries on peaceable people. The number of such batteries was great. No order was ever issued for the police to use their clubs only in self-defense. They have a right to use them in all lawful cases, and do use them when necessary. But a complaint against a policeman by a citizen for having committed an unlawful battery is now a rare thing, as I suppose you also know. I suppose a policeman could rarely use his club lawfully except in self-defense. There may be exceptional cases, however, such as the case of gangs, riots, and the like.

Crime has not generally increased in the city. That statement originated with reckless people and was cried aloud by vulgar and lying newspapers to the whole world, but at the time it was started the crimes which it was said were going unchecked, namely, hold-ups in the streets by robbers, burglaries, and the like, were less than normal. The assertion in the corrupt newspapers that criminals could attack you in the street or burglarize your house with impunity, as the police were not making arrests therefor, was read by the criminals here and in other cities, and in their ignorance many of them believed it and became very troublesome to the police, but I am glad to say that the police stood manfully to their work and did not allow the clamor to affect them a single particle nor crime to get the upper hand for a day. I think all sensible people now know these facts.

Let me add that shortly after I became Mayor I began by slow process to teach the police not to make so many petty and frivolous arrests without warrants, and bring people into court without cause, only to make them the victims of the professional bondsmen and others, sooner than be locked up over night. I paid a visit to the Night Court, and found that over fifty per cent of the men and women arraigned there were brought into court without justification and were promptly discharged by the magistrates. I made a public statement about the matter. I am glad to say that the police responded most intelligently, and Chief Magistrate McAdoo and others will now inform you that the number of needless and frivolous arrests is growing smaller all the time. Last year there were 50,000 fewer petty arrests than the year before. The statistics show the petty offenses in which this decrease occurred by the decrease of arrests therefor. I have no doubt you know that the number of these unlawful arrests without warrant is vastly more in this city than in the European cities. They do not arrest people there for nothing or for trifles. Of course you also know that we resorted to the method of summoning people in place of arbitrarily arresting them. If a man has a house and a family, or is known in his neighborhood as a good citizen, there is no reason why a policeman should lug him off to the station-house for some petty battery or the like. He can be summoned to appear before the magistrate, as is the orderly way all over the civilized world.

W. J. GAYNOR,
Mayor.

City of New York,
Office of the Mayor.

ARBITRATION AND FORCE

As a stanch Roosevelt man, I read Mr. Roosevelt's article of May 20 with an earnest desire to agree with him. I cannot, because—

1. He does his own principles injustice, by setting up the derision of the bystanders and the contempt of the whole people as considerations material to the issue. When did they ever count with him? This is a simple moral question: Is reprisal in kind a duty, either personally or nationally? Mr. Roosevelt says yes; Jesus Christ says no; and the world is steadily moving away from the former and toward the latter attitude. Only among cowards has public contempt anything to do with the matter.

2. His use of terms beclouds the issue. To "go to law about it" suggests a civil suit

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for damages. But that is not the alternative which his illustration of the injured wife presents. The civil suit might furnish a later recourse; but when a man sees his wife insulted and slapped, the alternative is between physical reprisal in stone-age fashion or an immediate seizing of the aggressor and holding him in the name of the law until a policeman and a magistrate can be found and the man jailed or otherwise held on criminal charges. To pursue the latter course would be neither cowardly nor contemptible; it would simply show that the man recognized his duty to society as well as his duty to his wife.

3. By clear implication, Mr. Roosevelt advocates lynch law. The case he cites is one of a series of possible cases. For some milder aggression, the husband might presumably "go to law about it" without being "regarded with derision." For a simple assault and a slap in the face, his plain duty, it seems, is to knock the villain down and chastise him into better manners. What, then, if the wife has been murdered or outraged? Is it not, by the same logic, his duty in such cases to apply the torch, to string to a tree, or at the least to shoot to kill? Does Mr. Roosevelt mean to teach that "the unwritten law" is the pathway of desirable citizenship?

4. Arbitration is referred to in such terms as to suggest, first, that this country has no remedy but force with which to stay the hand of an aggressor; secondly, that when such aggression has been committed she has no standing in court other than as a humble suppliant before a bench in whose counsels she has no voice or influence; and, third, that the moral situation will be the same under arbitral conditions as it is without them. Is there no such thing as international psychology? Was Jesus a dreamer, or a discoverer, when he announced that the meek should inherit the earth, and imparted the pregnant secret of the second mile? On the low plane of self-interest and expected returns, and waiving all considerations of right and duty, we ought to support the arbitration of all questions, not only as to Great Britain, but as our offer to every other country that will also agree to join with us in an armed maintenance of the world's peace.

5. The assertions that if such acts as Great Britain committed on our shipping prior to the War of 1812 were to-day repeated "this country would fight at the drop of the hat," and that such an impulse would be "the popular path," are probably true. But to add that "any man who proposed to arbitrate such a matter would be tossed contemptuously" out of the path is simply to claim that Mr. Roosevelt and the jingoes are the people of the United States. I do not believe they are. I, for one, will stand in that path; and the company in which I shall find myself is not such as even Mr. Roosevelt may contemn.

I thank him for reminding us of the danger of a sudden outbreak of the war fever in our body politic. It needs to be guarded against. The whole population, and especially the children, should be immunized against the contagion of yellow journals and jingo statesmen. When that has been done, the danger of our yielding to sudden impulse, abandoning our really effective resources, and joining the undesirable citizenry of the international lower world, will be over.

E. MORRIS FERGUSSON.
Presbyterian Board of Publication and
Sabbath School Work,
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

[Seizing the aggressor and holding him for the police is in itself a resort to force. But what if there is no police? Will you leave your wife undefended and her assailant unpunished? There is no international police, and no prospect that any nation will resign to an international police the duty of protecting its own citizens, a duty which is the primary reason for the nation s existence. Mr. Roosevelt does not even by implication justify lynch law. But he justifies resort to force in fulfillment of duty and protection of those who are dependent on us. Jesus did not call for arbitration nor appeal to the corrupt courts when he found thieves taking possession of the Temple courts. The appeal to the instinctive moral judgment of mankind is very material to the issue, for that moral judgment is a witness to the moral law written in the heart of humanity. Mr. Roosevelt is not a disbeliever in arbitration: witness the number of international controversies which were settled by arbitration through his influence while President of the United States. Nor opposed to peace: witness the Nobel Prize given to him as a peacemaker. But he believes in so framing arbitration treaties that it will be possible to insure living up to them when the time of trial comes.—THE EDITORS.]

A CORRECTION

In a recent issue of The Outlook it was stated that the Consumers' League had abandoned the use of the White List, which had been made up of those concerns that observed in their treatment of employees the standards approved by the League, and had substituted for it statements describing the actual conditions in the individual stores, from which individual consumers could reach a decision as to what sources seemed worthy of patronage. It ought to have been noted in this account in The Outlook that the change in method had been adopted, not by the Consumers' League throughout the country, but simply by one branch, the Consumers' League of New York.—THE EDITORS.

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Real Estate

MASSACHUSETTS

Cape Cod Comfortable **cottage**, furnished, 7 chambers. Abundance of water, sanitary plumbing. Fine location near beach. Address 1,883, Outlook.

East Gloucester, Mass.
$400 for season. 8-room house, 4 bedrooms: completely furnished; improvements: furnace, tubs, baths. Good view. Particulars, address E. A. M'CREADY, E. Gloucester, Mass.

For Rent Fully Furnished
MARBLEHEAD, MASS.
The Summer White House
occupied the last two seasons by
PRESIDENT TAFT
The house has nineteen rooms. Containing seven master chambers, five single chambers, five bathrooms of the best modern plumbing, seven fireplaces, furnace, electric lights, and telephone. Wide piazzas. Garage for three automobiles, bath and chauffeur's rooms. Located in the most exclusive summer colony, directly on the water front; extensive views of the ocean, harbor, and North Shore. Thirty-five minutes by express from Boston. Apply to **Gardner R. Hathaway, Marblehead, Mass.** Phone connection.

Sea-Shore, $30 Per Acre
Own a summer home on the ocean front. Enjoy your vacations in the coolest, healthiest, most delightful spot on the Massachusetts Coast (Martha's Vineyard). Don't buy small lot at high price—buy acreage with shore frontage at low price and subdivide among friends at profit if desired. A few bargains in choice tracts 10 to 400 acres, high and dry land, magnificent beach and view. $30 per acre and up. C. M. IDE, Trustee,
176 Federal St., Boston, Mass.

Nantucket, Mass. **For rent,** furnished house, with or without stable. 12 rooms, 8 bedrooms, piazzas, and fine view; acre lawn. Grounds cared for by owner. Apply Box 64, Nantucket, Mass.

Rowley, Mass. To let, furnished, large, old-fashioned country house, surrounded by beautiful elms; about 40 acres of land. 5 rooms on 1st floor, large covered piazza; 4 chambers and bath on 2d; servants' rooms on 3d. Furnace; 7 open fireplaces. About 2½ miles from R.R. station. Stable. Rent moderate. Apply to
MEREDITH & GREW
15 Congress St., Boston, Mass.

NEW HAMPSHIRE

HANOVER, N. H.
In "the most beautiful river valley in the world." **FOR RENT,** from June 15 to Sept. 15. The **ALOHA MANOR,** a gentleman's handsome 9-room residence, fully furnished and screened, with modern plumbing, enamel bath tub, ice house, barn, etc. On State automobile road, 3½ miles north of Dartmouth College, with its golf links and tennis court; beautiful grounds, beside Conn. River; boat or canoe supplied; horse and carriage extra. Send for photographs. Price extremely low for such place.
E. L. GULICK, Hanover, N. H.

To Let—At Intervale, N. H.
An attractive summer cottage commanding a most beautiful view of the mountains. Cottage finely built, with modern improvements. For further information apply to Miss Means, 576 Washington St., Dorchester, Mass.

To Let at Little Boar's Head, N. H.
Near Rye Beach. Two fully furnished cottages; all improvements; electric lighting; open plumbing, set tubs, furnace, open fireplaces; piazzas; view unsurpassed. Price $800 and $600. WILLIAM P. FOWLER, 18 Tremont St., Boston, Mass.

NEW HAMPSHIRE

Summer Cottage with stable to rent, completely furnished; overlooking Lake Sunapee, N. H. ¾ mile from lake; 7 acres. Address James B. Sill, 153 W. 136th St., New York.

Summer Cottage to Rent
On the estate of the late John Hay, Newbury, New Hampshire. Newly furnished, six rooms with bath. One mile from Blodgett's Landing, Lake Sunapee. Small lake near by. Terms $150 for the summer. Apply for particulars to D. H. ANDREW, Newbury, N. H.

Northwood, New Hampshire
For Rent—$100 for Season
FINE OLD FARM HOUSE
8 rooms, well furnished. Large barn. Sightly location, near beautiful lake, post-office, store, church, etc. Garden planted if desired. Address 2,865, Outlook.

Sugar Hill, New Hampshire Edgewood Camp
Small cottage to rent for the season. Large living-room, kitchen, nine beds, six bedrooms, three sleeping porches, large veranda. Beautiful view. Within convenient distance of hotels. Apply to
460 Prospect St., New Haven, Conn.

COTTAGE FOR RENT at
SUGAR HILL, N. H.
Built this season, containing eight rooms and two baths, attractively furnished, electric lights, furnace heat, large piazzas on first and second stories, situated near Sunset Hill House, where table board can be obtained and tennis and golfing privileges provided.
BOWLES & HOSKINS CO.

NEW JERSEY

To rent. Montclair, N. J. $65. Comfortably furnished, well-located house, 10 rooms. Near trolley, 7 min. from D. L. Sta. Unfurnished, $50 from Sept. to May. 18 Lexington Ave.

For Rent Half a House, Plainfield, N. J. 3 stories, 7 rooms and bath, modern conveniences. No connection with other half except in cellar. Broad veranda, splendid shade. One block from trolley, 8 minutes from depot. $35 per month. F. M. Bowman, 1114 Myrtle Ave., Plainfield, N. J.

FOR SALE $6,500 Most desirable home in a city of fine schools. Splendid water, electric light, etc. 45 minutes from N. Y. on Penn. R.R. Lot 85x175. Best location. House just papered and painted throughout. Large rooms, steam heat, bath-room, etc. Address BLISS, 57 Jaques Ave., Rahway, N. J.

To Rent or Sell
Farm with new 7-room house and barn. Bath and toilet. Beautiful location on hill. One hour out, Somerville, N. J.
HERBERT R. BURNS
408 Jefferson Ave., Brooklyn, N. Y.

NEW YORK

Concerning Rental or Purchase of
ADIRONDACK CAMPS in any section of the mountains consult
DURYEE & COMPANY
Real Estate, Saranac Lake, N. Y.

ADIRONDACKS
If you want a camp or cottage on any lake or in any village in the Adirondacks, write for a free illustrated booklet. William F. Roberts, Real Estate Office, Saranac Lake, N. Y.

Adirondack Camp
TO RENT
To private parties, not invalids, for season, furnished 8-room cottage on Big Tupper Lake. Running water in house. Boats, ice, wood, etc. Address, with references.
OWNER, 2,923, Outlook.

NEW YORK

FOR SALE
Whiteface Inn Property
The most desirable hotel site in the Adirondacks, including about 450 acres on and near the west shore of Lake Placid, with a new high pressure gravity water system for fire and domestic service, a trunk line gravity sewer, and a full equipment of help houses, laundry, barns, boathouses, boats, launches, etc., leaving only to be provided a new hotel building, in place of the Whiteface Inn that was destroyed by fire. The Whiteface Inn had a high class clientele. Address
ADIRONDACK COMPANY
Room 614, 17 Battery Place, N. Y. City.

Adirondacks on lake. Two ideal camps cheap. Running spring water, boats, ice. Particulars F. W. WILCOX, 444 Columbus Ave., N. Y.

TO RENT. 3-room furnished camp, INDIAN LAKE, ADIRONDACKS. $75. WALTER L. HERVEY, 351 West 114th St., New York.

Furnished Summer Home on river in Catskills. Large house and stable. Beautiful grounds and environment. For season $250. 2,901, Outlook.

FOR RENT ON
LAKE CHAMPLAIN
Near Essex, N. Y.
FURNISHED COTTAGE
Six rooms and bath. Three acres of land with 600 feet frontage on the lake. Hot and cold water. New sanitary plumbing. Rent for season, $200. Address ALBERT L. WEBSTER, 82 Wall St., New York, N. Y.

Essex on Lake Champlain
An attractively furnished camp of seven rooms and bath; wide piazza; near Crater Club. $250 for season. Address H. G. Weld, 1465 Fairfield Ave., Bridgeport, Conn.

Lake Champlain modern furnished houses and cottages, from $350 to $1,000 season. Magnificent scenery, sandy beach, boating and bathing, pure water, scientific plumbing and drainage. J. WORMAN, Westport, N.Y.

Lake George bungalow and cottages for rent near Glenburnie Inn. Golf, tennis, boating, bathing, etc. Every convenience. W. E. Walton, Glenburnie-on-Lake George, N. Y.

A Cottage by the Sea
At Lawrence Beach, L. I. To rent for season. 10 rooms, stable, etc. Lot 75 x 90. 5 minutes to ocean. For particulars apply to Louis C. Master, 2 Madison Ave., Flushing.

For Sale on
STATEN ISLAND
Country place 20 miles from New York City Hall, 3 minutes from station; daily commutation reasonable. House contains eleven rooms exclusive of bath-room; has hot and cold water, steam heat, and electric lights. Barn 20 x 40, brick and concrete floors. The grounds are high and consist of about two acres, including a beautiful, well-kept lawn. There are shade and fruit trees, fine garden, and 700 ft. of trimmed live hedge. Price $8,500; $3,500 cash, balance to suit. Send for description to
JOHN F. HAMMOND, Prince Bay, N.Y.

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Real Estate

NEW YORK

Cottages to rent, Lake Awosting, on summit Shawangunk Mountains. Furnished, 13 rooms, bath and toilet, running water, large stone fireplace, spacious piazza, stable. $400. Smiley Brothers, Minnewaska, N. Y.

For Rent, Furnished, at Tarrytown

From June 15th, frame cottage, eight bedrooms, every improvement, piazzas, abundance of shade, large, fine vegetable and flower gardens, stream running through property. Stable and carriage house. Steinway grand piano. Gardener included at $750 for season. NICHOLS & HOBBIE, 7 East 42d St.

OREGON

OREGON APPLE ORCHARDS

The Fargo Orchards Company have purchased at a cost of $5,000 a large Caterpillar Engine to cultivate their 600 acre Commercial apple orchard. This machine does the work of 30 horses and 10 men, and will keep every tract as mellow as a garden. A few choice 5 and 10 acre tracts still for sale; better invest your money where you have a guarantee that every promise made will be carried out. FARGO ORCHARDS CO., 83 5th, Portland, Ore.

PENNSYLVANIA

FOR SALE OR RENT Rainbow Cottage

Furnished, 11 rooms; stable; lake, boats, and tennis court. Eagles Mere, Pa. Address O. H. LAWRENCE, Waverly, N. Y.

For Rent, Furnished

Summer Home in the Poconos

Fourteen rooms, two baths, open fire, furnace, broad porches, large grounds, ice house filled. Modern in every respect. Rent from June 1 to October 1, $600. Address M. C. LOCKWOOD, Mt. Pocono, Pa.

RHODE ISLAND

FOR RENT FURNISHED

Two new Bungalows, located on the shore of Narragansett Bay, near and in sight of Newport. ROBERT FRAME, Newport, R. I.

Summer Cottages At Watch Hill and Pleasant View, R. I., and Lords Point, Conn. Fully furnished modern seashore cottages to rent and for sale. H. C. Crandall, 3 Granite St., Westerly, R. I.

VERMONT

FARM HOUSE to rent on Lake Champlain for the summer. Furniture new. Beautiful view. Good boating and fishing. Hot water and bath-room. L. B. LORD, Orchard Farm, Burlington, Vt.

TO RENT. COTTAGE IN THE HEART OF THE GREEN MOUNTAINS. Most beautiful spot in Vermont, 10 miles from Manchester. Cottage fully furnished, bath, running water from mountain spring. Rent for season with ice and wood, $175. Address Glen Farm, Dorset, Vt.

Summer Home for Sale

160 acres, picturesque region of Southern Vermont, 1,300 feet elevation. Meadows, brooks, woods; fine view, beautiful drives, very cool in summer; five city families near. Remodeled farm-house of ten rooms, open fireplaces; large, unfailing spring running in the house. Two barns and stable, chicken house, etc. Some furniture. Six hours from N. Y., four from Boston, two from Springfield, Mass. Price $3,500. Address 2,825, Outlook.

ON LAKE CHAMPLAIN

Comfortably furnished summer cottage, commanding lake and mountain view for miles; front porch 42 feet long; six bedrooms, large living room and fireplace, kitchen, etc.; two acres; pine and fruit trees; boat; filled ice house; easy access; moderate rental. E. B. Booth, 329 Willow St., Richmond Hill, N. Y.

HELP WANTED

Business Situations

WANTED—Stenographer, college graduate, with reading knowledge of German and aptitude for proof-reading and general office work, as secretary in a scientific institution. Address J. U. Norris, Station Y, New York City, stating training, experience, and references.

WANTED—Immediately—college man or woman with practical experience as purchasing and business agent. Apply, stating qualifications in full, President's Office, Bryn Mawr College, Bryn Mawr, Penna.

TEACHERS for vacation work; men and women 25 years or over to travel for necessary educational help. Good income. F. E. Compton & Co., Dept. A., 215 South Market St., Chicago.

INCREASE your earning power by learning to write advertisements. Facts sent free. Page-Davis Co., Dept. 32, Page Building, Chicago.

ECONOMICS—STUDENTS. An opportunity to meet live business men and to make some money this summer. Write "Business Research," 10 Wall St., New York.

Teachers and Governesses

TEACHERS wanted for public and private schools. Calls coming every day. Send for Bulletin. Albany Teachers' Agency, Albany, N. Y.

TEACHERS wanted: Men—metallurgy, $2,500-$3,000; college graduates with athletics. Men and women—many excellent vacancies in various lines. Write to-day. New Century Teachers' Bureau, 1420 Chestnut St., Philadelphia.

PACIFIC COAST? Certification, etc., explained. 20c. stamps. Boynton-Esterly Teachers' Agency, San Francisco, Los Angeles.

FOR housekeepers, matrons, governesses, mothers' helpers, etc., address Miss Richards, Saunderstown, R. I.

WANTED—Teacher thoroughly grounded in sciences—physics, chemistry, biology. Boys' school in which an effort is made to correlate scientific instruction with work of farm and school shops. Man must have experience as teacher, fond of boys, and willing to spend some leisure time on excursions to fields and neighboring factories with his pupils. This school offers opportunity to do educational work of a vital kind. 5,867, Outlook.

NURSERY governess for boys aged seven and five years. Apply to Mrs. Denny Brereton, Hill View, Lake George, New York.

WANTED—Teachers, male, female; governesses, nurses, housekeepers. Supplies families, schools, institutions, hospitals. The Hopkins' Educational Agency, 507 Fifth Ave.

WANTED—An experienced teacher of French and German, Sidney Lanier High School. For full particulars, address C. L. Floyd, Superintendent of Schools, Montgomery, Alabama.

SITUATIONS WANTED

Professional Situations

SECRETARYSHIP by young woman. School preferred. Several years' experience. Good references. 5,770, Outlook.

YOUNG woman, college graduate, stenographer, experienced secretary, desires fall engagement as school secretary. 5,864, Outlook.

TRAINED nurse desires position to care for children, semi-invalid, or would travel. References. 5,859, Outlook.

GRADUATE mechano-therapist desires patient. Paralysis and nervous affections given scientific treatment. N. Y. or suburbs. Mrs. Bertha L. Barnes, Box 122, Bronxville, N. Y.

Business Situations

EXPERIENCED young business woman. Private secretary, literary work, advertising, stenographer. 5,810, Outlook.

EXPERIENCED stenographer and typewriter familiar with literary work desires position for summer. Travel or permanent location. 5,821, Outlook.

Companions and Domestic Helpers

COMPANION.—Wholesome, well-educated young woman seeks employment during summer. Pleasant reader. Good traveler. 5,850, Outlook.

College girl desires summer position as companion for children. Excellent references. 5,802, Outlook.

LADY with best references and extended experience would act as housekeeper in institution, school, or small hotel. Miss K. Diller, York, Pa.

GENTLEWOMAN desires position as attendant, companion, housekeeper. 5,856, Outlook.

CHAPERONAGE by experienced gentlewoman. New York and vicinity. References. 5,799, Outlook.

SITUATIONS WANTED

Companions and Domestic Helpers

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LADY desires to secure position for her companion who is leaving and to whom she will give best personal references. 5,873, Outlook.

SECRETARY-companion. Elderly lady or semi-invalid preferred. References exchanged. 5,876, Outlook.

YOUNG lady desires position nursery governess or managing housekeeper. 5,879, Outlook.

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FRENCH teacher with good recommendations desires position as governess for summer. 5,853, Outlook.

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YALE junior, tutor, companion. References. 171 Yale Station.

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UNIVERSITY graduate, experienced teacher, desires summer position. 5,831, Outlook.

FRENCH lady, educated, teacher in school, wants summer position as tutor. Best references. 5,865, Outlook.

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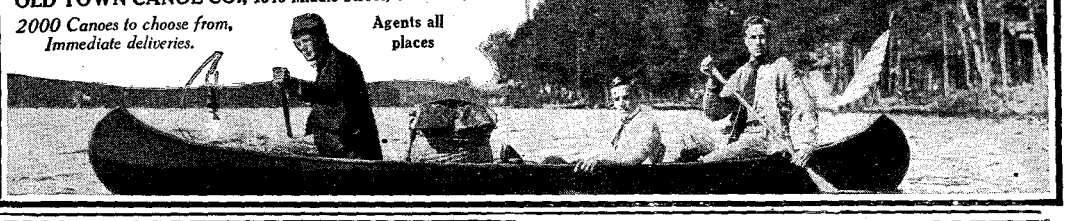

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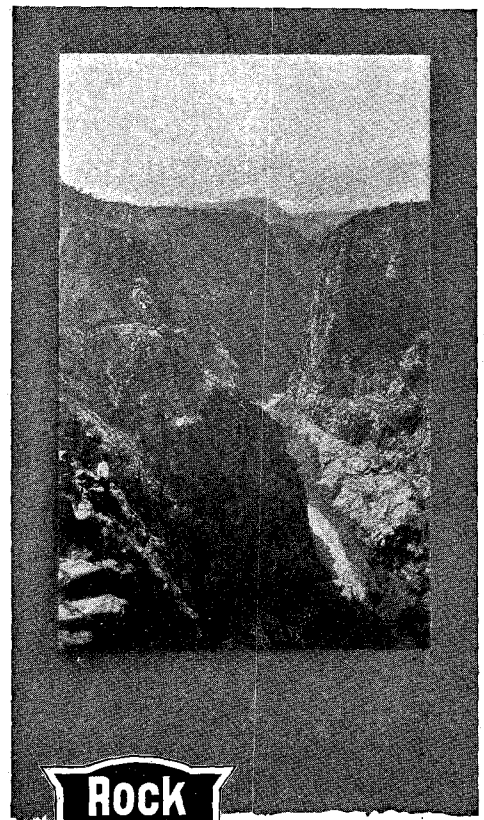

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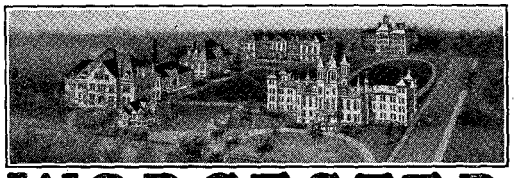

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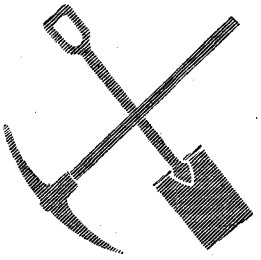
Best at  *the Price*

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With Envelopes to Match

This paper has not *only* the strength, crackle and character that give *impressiveness* to business stationery, but its *economical method of distribution* has so *reduced* its *cost* that it produces

Impressive Stationery at a Usable Price

That method is this: Construction Bond is sold only *direct* to *responsible* printers and lithographers in *quantities* of *500 lbs. or more* at a time, while *other* fine bonds are sold *through jobbers*, a ream or more at a time, to any printer who will buy them. The saving is obvious and it's *your* saving if you *secure* Construction Bond.

We will tell you more about our sale plan and send you some handsome specimen letterheads on Construction Bond, together with the names of those printers and lithographers in your vicinity who handle it, if you'll just ask us on your *business* stationery.

W. E. WROE & CO.
1005 South Michigan Boulevard, CHICAGO

Some People Profit By Opportunities

that are not presented to others, or that others ignore. This is YOUR opportunity to transform a savings account or an idle bank deposit into a highly desirable and *profitable investment.*

WE HAVE PAID 5% PER ANNUM

for eighteen years, aggregating more than $1,000,000.00 distributed in this way. Our business is conducted under New York Banking Dept. Supervision. Funds in our care are safeguarded by selected mortgages on New York and suburban real estate.

Assets over $2,300,000

We invite you to deposit with us *by mail.* Start any time, withdraw whenever desired upon short notice, receive full earnings for all of the time. You can begin with $25.00.

Write for Booklet

Industrial Savings and Loan Co.

10 Times Bldg.,
Broadway & 42d St., New York

INDUSTRIAL SAVINGS and LOAN CO. NEW YORK CITY

INVESTORS:—We can provide you with safe, sound Western securities, bearing 6% interest payable semi-annually. They run for five years, and are issued in denominations suitable for the small or large investor. Write for Booklet "A." The Day & Hansen Security Company, Spokane, Washington. Capital and Surplus $1,100,000.00.

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19 YEARS SUCCESSFUL BUSINESS

FOR nineteen years this company has, with continuous success, been furnishing investments to the public.

Our 6% Gold Coupon Bonds afford ideal securities. First Mortgages on real estate secure them, the mortgages being held by Trustee. The interest is obtainable by simply clipping the coupons attached.

Write for booklet "A."

THE TROPICAL BUILDING & INVESTMENT CO.
KEY WEST, FLORIDA

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